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# A preliminary study of coping patterns in parenting and non-parenting teenage girls.

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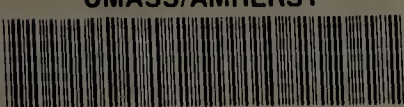
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A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF COPING PATTERNS IN  
PARENTING AND NON-PARENTING TEENAGE GIRLS

A Dissertation Presented

by

IRENE DUPREY-GUTIERREZ

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

September, 1988

Education

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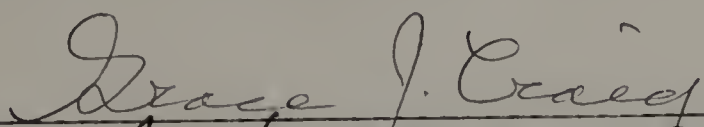
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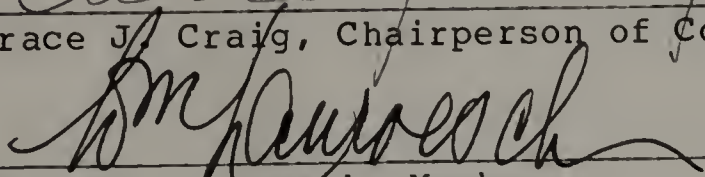
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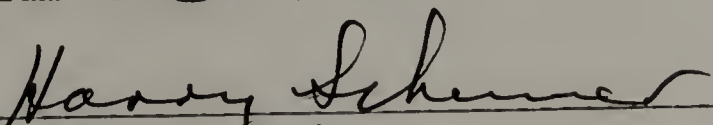
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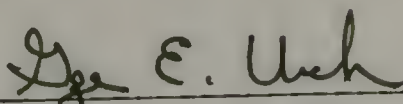
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ABSTRACT

A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF COPING PATTERNS IN  
PARENTING AND NON-PARENTING TEENAGE GIRLS

September, 1988

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The purpose of this study was to identify certain personality characteristics in girls who have experienced early pregnancy and childbearing. A group of 28 parenting adolescents was matched age, education, religion and race with a group of 32 non-parenting teens. Subjects were recruited through programs in three southeastern Massachusetts cities of similar demographics.

Two instruments were used, Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE) and Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Operations - Behavior (FIRO-B), both developed by William Schutz. COPE, a descriptive instrument, identifies certain defense mechanisms specifically Denial, Isolation, Projection, Regression and Turning-Against-Self. Respondents rank order choices in hypothetical stress-inducing situations, resulting in patterns of preferred coping strategies. FIRO-B, a Guttman format personality

inventory, produces scores in inclusion, control and affection, with subscores for expressed and wanted behavior. An original survey, including 25 single statement opinion questions generated 3 cluster scores, namely internal pressures, external pressures and risk-taking attitudes involving sexual behavior and pregnancy.

Data obtained were used to establish mean test profiles for each of the two groups. Means and standard deviations, as well as analysis of variance, were computed on COPE-Denial and FIRO-B scores and the survey cluster. A discriminate analysis of 10 factors, including COPE-Denial, all sub-scores of FIRO-B and the three survey clusters identified members of the two groups with 81.67% accuracy. Parenting teens scored markedly higher in Denial ( $F=11.37$ ;  $P=.001$ ) and significantly lower in both Expressed Affection ( $F=9.68$ ;  $P=.013$ ) and Internal Pressures ( $F=6.571$ ;  $P=.003$ ) than did the comparison group. The high Denial scores and the lower Internal Pressures scores are discussed as consistent with more clinical studies of pregnant and parenting teens.



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Rationale

Adolescent pregnancy has reached epidemic proportions (Chilman, 1980, 1983; Matana, 1983; Zelnik, 1981). At the present rate, over 1,600,000 adolescents will give live birth in the United States in a given year, with over 90 percent electing to keep and raise their babies themselves. One-fifth to one-third of these girls will become pregnant again within two years (Christensen, 1960; Cvetkovich & Grote, 1983; Pearce, 1984; Moore, 1985). Research indicates that these young women often have more children and that these children are in closer birth sequence than women who first conceive at a later age (Hardy, 1980; Herold, 1980).

Numerous studies indicate a series of health problems that health problems that befall the teen and her newborn. Young mothers often experience complicated and difficult pregnancies at least partially due to their own physical immaturity and sometimes made worse by the factors intrinsic to poverty or by their lack of knowledge regarding pre-natal care. Poor nutrition and inadequate medical care are cited as causes of concern with pregnancy within this age group (Rogel, 1980; Zelnik, Kantner & Ford, 1982). Consequently, a

disproportionate number of their babies suffer from the effects of birth disorders such as low birth weight and higher incidents of neurological diseases like cerebral palsey (Chilman, 1980; Rogel, 1980). Positive mother/child bonding among adolescents and their young may be disrupted as well. The results of a difficult, sometimes unwanted pregnancy, followed by the raising of a child often in particular need of care and attention, may be expected to be stressful, indeed overwhelming, to the teenage mother.

Teenage childbearing and childrearing have been linked to a chain of events that pose potential problems for both mother and child, as well as imposing added burdens on their families and society in general (Darabi, Graham & Philliber, 1982). Childbearing teens tend to acquire less schooling and vocational training than their peers, which results in higher incidence of poverty. They also experience greater amounts of family disfunction than others with some researchers noting a disproportional degree of child abuse among them. A cycle of generational recidivism with respect to these problems is likely to follow (Cohen, 1983; Landy, Schubert, Clark & Montgomery, 1983; Resnick, 1984).

Much prior research has been conducted in an attempt to understand adolescent parenting and to establish effective programs aimed at alleviating its negative consequences. The focus of these has ranged from comparatively simple

studies of demographics to the complex issues of integration of personality development. In the process, confusing and conflicting theories have surfaced, resulting in a scattered and incomplete picture on many levels of understanding and interpretation. Consequently, parenting programs designed for adolescents tend to reflect this haphazard approach and tend to focus heavily on parenting skills while disregarding the physical, emotional and social needs of teen parents. Much research is yet to be done concerning the identification of important areas. A better understanding of these adolescents and of the contributing factors leading to their early pregnancies is essential for the development of effective intervention strategies aimed at alleviating the negative life cycles which early pregnancy foreshadows for both mother and child.

While the original intent of this study was to focus upon personality factors which might suggest a predisposition toward early pregnancy, restraints, such as time and a limited population with which to work, made such a plan unfeasible. Instead, after consideration of the existing literature, a simpler comparison of teen mothers and non-mothers on selected personality factors was proposed.



## Purpose

A review of the clinical literature suggests certain personality factors and behaviors that occur more commonly in teenage mothers than in their agemates. Of interest to this research is the comparison of coping patterns between these two groups of adolescents, specifically those patterns exhibited in decision-making and in the handling of stress-related issues. The typical teen often feels trapped between her desire for what she views as adult freedom and the frustrations of societal constraint and responsibility; this may result in a confusing, complex series of decisions which may have life-long consequences. Her methods of determining alternatives and evaluating them in terms of her future may reflect both her degree of cognitive development and her individual stress-handling ability.

Several authors (Schutz, 1978; Pattern, 1981) have concluded that some methods of coping with stress appear to be formed early in life and to remain relatively stable throughout. An understanding of this behavior may be central to determining the effects of immaturity in the process of reasoning. Interestingly, it has been suggested that these behavior patterns may be identified in a child earlier than the onset of sexual activity (Chilman, 1979).



William Schutz has developed a model of interpersonal behavior that provides the framework for this study. He identifies three variables - the needs for control, for inclusion and for affection - as central components of relationships. He further identifies coping patterns as primary mechanisms for achieving these. He has developed various instruments for the measurement of each with forms appropriate for use in testing adolescents.

The purpose of this study has been to compare groups of parenting and non-parenting teenage girls in their self-reported responses to hypothetical stress-inducing situations. From these scores, group profiles were drawn and comparisons made to determine if teen mothers differ from non-parenting teens in their use of certain defensive coping techniques. Further, through an original survey, this study questioned whether these groups of teens differ in certain social attitudes and behaviors, especially as they relate to sex and pregnancy.

### Problem Statement

This study has attempted to identify certain behavioral characteristics, specifically certain coping patterns, of girls who are teenage mothers and to interpret how these girls differ from or are more or less pronounced in these characteristics than are teen girls who are not parenting.

To accomplish this purpose, the researcher framed three research questions:

1. Are there differences in coping patterns between teenage girls who are parenting and those who are not, specifically in those patterns involving A) denial, B) isolation, C) projection, D) regression and E) turning-against-self? It was anticipated that adolescents who are parenting would score higher on denial and isolation.

2. Are there differences between parenting teenage girls and their non-parenting peers in their patterns of interpersonal needs involving A) inclusion, B) control and C) affection? It was expected that parenting adolescents would score higher in desired behavior and lower in expressed behavior with respect to inclusion, control and affection.

3. Are there differences between teenage girls who are mothers and those who are not involving their responses to A) internal pressures, B) external pressures and C) risk-taking with respect to sexual behavior? It was suggested that adolescents who are parenting would score lower in internal pressure but higher in both external pressure and risk-taking.

### The Schutz Model

Schutz and others suggest that preference for and stability in one's use of interpersonal coping mechanisms is

relatively consistent throughout life. In Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE) he has selected five coping mechanisms for study as representative of general behavior patterns. These include Denial, Isolation, Projection, Regression and Turning-Against-Self and are similar to those looked at by other researchers. (For consistency in the remainder of this discussion, female personal pronouns will be used.) As defined by Schutz (1980), Denial suggests a preference for not allowing one's self to be aware of her anxiety, a typical behavior in early adolescent development. Denial concerning sexual behavior, as in other related areas of risk-taking, negates conscious awareness of possible results. Isolation indicates that a person tends to see life in terms of thoughts and ideas rather than experience it through feelings. With respect to sexual behavior, the use of isolation suggests the desire to make sexual intercourse an impersonal act which is easier to rationalize, rather than an intimate emotional experience. Projection is defined as an individual's tendency to blame others for circumstances in her own life and to believe that others act toward her more negatively than they actually do. With respect to sexual behavior, a girl may substitute her own responsibility toward pregnancy by blaming others for her actions. Regression is defined as the tendency to be very dependent upon others and to look toward others to

solve personal problems. The teenage girl may do this by submissive behavior toward her boyfriend who, then, is given the power to make her decisions, including those involving sex and perhaps pregnancy. Turning-Against-Self is defined by Schutz as the tendency to take full responsibility or blame for everything that occurs. This coping pattern may indicate a need to blame one's self even for circumstances beyond her control. When there are negative consequences, this pattern may re-enforce an already negative self-image.

According to Schutz, these forms of behavior indicate an individual's method in her attempts to achieve inclusion, control and affection. Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) offers a self-reported measure of the degree to which these are both wanted and expressed. In reference to other research, teens who become pregnant often exhibit a noticable lack of successful experiences in these areas, the implications of which are not yet clear (1978).

By itself, however, the Schutz approach seems limited. A measure of internal and external pressures exerted upon a teen's life as well as the degree of risk-taking which she employs suggest important areas with which to augment the Schutz scales. For this study, internal pressures are defined as the effects of an individual's moral, ethical and religious values or, in short, her conscience. External



pressures are those values imposed upon her by other individuals, groups or institutions such as society's laws. These pressures may influence the manner in which an individual's typical choices of behaviors are established. One such form of behavior hypothesized to parallel denial in its use by teens who have become pregnant is risk-taking which has been noted as a preferred coping pattern through the early stages of cognitive development.

### Limitations

The scope of this investigation has been limited by the practical considerations of time, manageability by a single researcher, and access to data sources. Certain limitations are acknowledged. Due to the difficulty and sensitivity of locating pregnant or parenting teenage girls, those selected for this study do not necessarily reflect the behavior patterns of all teenage mothers. Because of the limited size of the sample, it was not possible to isolate certain other variables such as the effects of poverty or of certain ethnic or cultural behavioral patterns. As well, self-reported surveys have been shown to have inherent weaknesses, such as the halo effect, in their design.

The impact of pregnancy, childbirth and infant care upon the lives of the young mothers within this sample must be considered. Early pregnancy appears to hinder one's life

expectations and to set in motion a tendency toward a cycle of depression. Despite these reactions to the life change, some researchers indicate that these factors may not contribute to one's behavior over the long term as significantly or consistently as well established personality variables such as coping mechanisms (Abernethy, 1974; Pearlman, 1974; Paunoman, 1984). Yet, difficulties remain in attempts to disentangle long-term personality factors and the situational impact of childbearing and parenting. Schutz theorizes in his "constancy principle" that we will act as adults as we did as children, suggesting that coping patterns do not change significantly (1961).

### Significance and Implications

This exploratory study has attempted to identify patterns of handling stress and making decisions typical of teen mothers as compared to non-mothers. Through systematic comparison of self-reported coping patterns between the two groups, a number of issues frequently identified in the literature as personality factors of behavior have been subjected to analysis, specifically through the vehicle of Schutz' model. The study has been directed at more fully understanding the interpersonal relations of the teen mother.

Among promising areas in the quest for ways to prevent

teenage pregnancy and eliminate many of the problems associated with it, coping with stress and decision making appear worthy of further study (DeAmicis, Klorman, Hess & McAnarney, 1981). Coping with stress and decision making may be fitted into existing educational curricula and tailored to a wide variety of everyday problem solving skills and decision making techniques.

It is expected that the main audience for this report will be educators, social workers and health coordinators who plan, run and evaluate programs working with groups of adolescents. If provided with a more complete understanding of coping characteristics and of interpersonal relationships found in teenage mothers, professionals will have another resource for assisting them or perhaps for identifying teens who are at high risk of becoming pregnant during these years. With this knowledge, social service specialists will be better able to devise programs that focus on health and life planning. Methods for handling stress and decision-making could be included in such programs.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature concerning parenting adolescent girls indicates a scattered and often confusing profile of both clinical and empirical research. The results of many of these studies have been judgmental and fragmented. Nonetheless, earlier works that establish parenting teens as a significant cohort and the consequences of early pregnancy as serious social problems place the current study in context. More recent studies that have compared and contrasted the developmental behavior of parenting and non-parenting teens have broken ground for the present study. Better understanding of decision-making and coping styles among girls who become pregnant as teenagers is prerequisite to educational intervention to avoid such a consequence.

#### Profile of the Parenting Teen

The United States ranks third among developed nations in incidence of teenage pregnancy with 600,000 occurring annually. By age 19, 35 percent of our young females have become sexually active and 1 in 10 has gotten pregnant (Resnick, 1984). Seventeen percent of these pregnancies terminate in miscarriage and half end in abortion. Of the remaining teens, those who give live birth, 96 percent elect

to keep and raise their babies (Cartoof, 1984).

Massachusetts, which ranks as the eighth lowest state in the number of teenage births in the nation, accounts for 20,000 babies born to adolescent mothers each year (Lipman, 1980).

For the past decade, the fertility rate for teens 15-19 years has been relatively stable at 53.7 per 1,000 (Jessor & Jessor, 1975; Pattern, 1981). Despite this drop from a peak of 97.3 pregnancies per 1,000 adolescent girls in 1957, early pregnancy continues to create problems for the girls themselves, their babies, their families, and society in general (Shah, Zelnik & Kantner, 1975). Considering the difficulties faced by these adolescents, the question must be asked why young teens who choose to become sexually active, in a time of available, safe, and financially obtainable contraceptives, allow themselves to become pregnant.

### Consequences of Early Pregnancy

With improved health standards, teenage girls tend to mature younger than did females of earlier generations. This is evident in the decline in average age of the onset of menarch, from 15.5 years in 1870 to 12.5 years a century later, with its results of earlier fertility (Barglow, Bornstein, Wright & Visotsky, 1986; Cutwright, 1972). Pregnancy and childbearing among this age group represent

disproportionate amounts of risk when compared to older women. In a 1979 study involving 200 teenage mothers in Chicago, Miller and Swanson concluded that 16 percent required extended hospital stays following their deliveries (as opposed to 7 percent of the general population).

Sixteen percent of their babies suffered from premature birth or low birth weight with a mean weight of 6 pounds and 5 ounces (as compared to babies born to the general public of whom 9 percent had low birthweight while the mean birthweight averaged 7 pounds and 7 ounces). Chilman (1983) suggests that a higher percentage of these babies suffer from physical and neurological impairment than do those of older mothers, and that they are often irritable and more difficult to care for.

Several authors have suggested a common clinical pattern (Abernethy, 1974; Chilman, 1983). The inexperienced young mother, struggling with her own maturing process and now faced with new responsibilities, is often forced into life-style changes which may result in a series of difficulties and hardships. She may set in process a reproductive pattern where she has more children and in closer birth spacing than her peers will (Goldsmith, Gabrielso, Gabrielson, Matthews & Potts, 1972; Ralph & Lochman, 1984). As well, she may choose to marry the child's father and be faced with an unhappy and unstable marriage

which does not provide for her needs emotionally or financially. Divorce may follow: Pearlin and Johnson (1977) state that the rate of divorce among couples under 18 is twice as high for those between ages 20 and 25 and 4 times as high as for couples over 25.

If alone, the teenage mother's attempts to provide adequately for herself and her child may be frustrating (Chess & Cameron, 1976). She may become both a school and workplace dropout, consigning herself to a cycle of poverty. Pregnancy is reportedly the number one cause of girls discontinuing their education before completion of high school (Cohen, 1983). As a result, her earning potential may fall to one half that of her peers (Kane & Bolling, 1974).

As the young mother's frustrations mount, discontentment with her life style and awareness of her declining life options may become more intense. Confusion and insecurity, worsened by the girl's lack of knowledge of child development and child care, may add to the pressure. Clinicians have noted a role reversal in some cases in which the teen mother looks to her infant to provide for her own needs (Lipman, 1980). Too often, she may become impatient, insensitive, and irritable with their child and develop unrealistic attitudes and expectations for both of them (Anastasion, 1982; Cartoof, 1984). In many ways, her own needs and patterns of behavior may resemble her youngster's,



with both individuals facing similar conflicts in dealing with independence, planning ahead, and problem solving. Not surprisingly, the incidence of child abuse and neglect is higher among teenage mothers than among older women.

According to Kinard (1980), reporting on four separate teen parenting child abuse studies, while adolescent mothers represent only 17 percent of the parenting population, the reported number of cases of abuse among them is disproportionately high. In 1978, the Georgia Child Abuse Registry indicated 51.0 percent of their reported abuse cases involved teen mothers, while in the same year, Kinard concluded that teens accounted for 51.7 percent of the cases in his study. Two other studies conducted in 1976 show slightly lower but still disproportionate figures. Bolton et al. (1976) set the percentage at 43.0, and the American Humane Association concluded that adolescent parents were involved in 40.1 percent of its reported cases. These figures alone suggest the seriousness of the consequences that may follow early pregnancy.

One study (Lonely, frustrated and depressed, the adolescent mother may feel trapped by circumstances over which she has no control. She may express lower life aspirations, indicating that she believes she has missed her opportunity for success and has settled into a pattern of reduced hopes for her future (Jessor et al., 1975; Protinsky, Sporakowski &

Atkins, 1982). In fact, she may be overwhelmed by an overall negative life cycle as may her child who, as Compton, Duncan and Hruska (1985) summarize, now faces an "alarmingly high rate of child abuse, poverty, learning disorders, malnutrition, bahaviorial problems and the list goes on" (p. 2).

### Influences on the Teen

Girls who become pregnant as teenagers are often catagorized as coming from poor socio-economic backgrounds, from broken homes, as having numerous siblings but little extended family and as living in urban communities (Krubliner, 1982; Ralph et al., 1984). Poverty and a high rate of stress, chaos, and family disorder within the home appear to be dominant factors (Landy et al., 1983; Ralph et al., 1984). Researchers seem to be in agreement on little else regarding the home lives of these adolescents.

The relationship between the teen and her mother has been studied and confusing results have surfaced. Pattern (1981) and Chilman (1980, 1983) both point to a strong, dominant, hostile mother as a likely influence upon these girls, but Kane, Moan, and Bolling (1974) suggest that the mother is more likely to be distant and uninvolved, offering little parental supervision or direction to her daughter. Greenberg (1973) indicates that the mother is the strongest influence in her daughter's life but teaches values in an

indirect and unspoken manner. Jessor et al. (1976) argued that generational recidivism was a cause of early pregnancy, but more recent studies indicate that pregnancies occur more often in older sister-younger sister pairs than in mother-daughter dyads (Pattern, 1981).

With equally confusing results, the girl's relationship with her father has been studied. Early on, Young (1954) suggested that he is often tyrannical and perhaps incestuous, findings which have been strengthened by the later works of Chilman (1980, 1983) and Pattern (1981). But Babakian and Goldman (1971) and Landy et al. (1983) both argue that the father is more likely to be absent from the home and may have no relationship with his daughter at all.

It is generally accepted, however, that the strongest influence on an adolescent comes from her peers, especially from her boyfriend. Again contradictory, Landy et al. (1983) suggest that girls who become pregnant tend to have weak relationships with other girls and tend to be distrustful of male/female relationships. Ooms (1981) adds that they especially fear abandonment by their boyfriends and willingly accept a passive role, submitting to the male's demands. This conclusion agrees with the findings of Jurick and Jurick (1974) who state that girls may not see intelligence and control as necessary for success in their relationships with boys and that decision making may be



viewed by them as a masculine activity, the traditional socialization of the female role in our society. Influenced by a peer tolerant subculture, in keeping with evolving concepts of morality, sexual activity, then, may be viewed as a "giving in order to get" proposition, rather than inappropriate, immoral, or deviant behavior for teens as it has often been viewed in the past (Cutwright, 1971; Pattern, 1981). This attitude, reinforced by sexual messages in the media and to some extent by the women's movement, may allow the teen to equate sex with popularity without the traditional restraints of conscience or guilt (Abernethy, Robbins, Abernethy, Grunebaum & Weiss, 1975; Shah et al., 1975). One result may be that the adolescent comes to believe that she is both physically and emotionally ready for the transition from virginity at an early age.

#### Emotional Development of the Adolescent

Typical of the young adolescent, the girl may exhibit strong peer allegiance and a willingness to experiment, coupled with rebellion against adults and adult rules. She may be insecure and have negative self-perceptions, often feeling helpless and hopeless and generally signaling few plans for the future that pregnancy would change (Krubliner, 1982). Immature cognitive development may cause her to be present oriented and to make choices arbitrarily or based on

impulse, with little consideration of results or consequences deriving from her actions (Chilman, 1980). She often feels that the locus of control over her life is external (Pattern, 1981), eventually accepting that she has little or no control over almost anything that affects her. This fatalistic attitude may follow her into adulthood, reinforcing her already negative self-perceptions. In numerous clinical studies, Cvethovich and Grote (1980), Baldwin, et al. (1982), and Resnick (1984) among them, low self-esteem and self-concept have been consistent findings. Given the teen's feelings of lack of self worth, these girls may resort to sexual behavior as an available personal resource to gain what they see as identity, status, independence and maturity. Abernethy (1974), Jessor et al. (1975) and others have suggested that a proneness to transition toward non-virginity may be identified prior to sexual intercourse actually occurring due to systematic changes in individual behavior. Abernethy asserts that individuals who may be prone to early sexual experimentation and pregnancy may be identified without reference to or prior to sexual behavior because there may be psychological and experiential factors which allow or cause some women to risk unprotected sex. While specific behavior may vary within given circumstances, "threads of consistency" suggest stability in these behavioral traits (Epstein, 1977) which

result in characteristic behavior consistent enough to study (Paunomen, 1984). Among those traits appears to be a tendency toward coping patterns of denial and risk-taking, especially evident in the young teen when cognitive reasoning has not developed enough to allow for abstract problem solving. These girls may not be able to deduce the potential outcomes of their actions but select instead to satisfy their needs for immediate gratification (Cvetkovitch, Grote, Bjorseth & Sarkissian, 1975; Ooms, 1981; Klernan, 1984). To them, with a sense of permanency lacking, reality may seem reversible. Therefore, risk-taking and denial may be employed as preferred coping mechanisms in inverse proportions to their feelings of control over their own lives (Lieberman, 1981; Landy et al., 1983). However, it appears we do not fully understand these teen patterns of behavior, since little has been done to examine such characteristic modes of personality and coping (Campbell & Barlund, 1977). Still, it has been suggested that certain inferences may be drawn from what is known.

Chilman (1983) suggests that immature cognitive development may retard one's ability to conceptualize, to differentiate between the real and the possible, to reason out possibilities and deduce their potential outcomes. This may lead the girl to display unrealistic attitudes toward her own sexual fulfillment or deny the danger of her

behavior. As well, it may lower her ability or desire to control impulsivity. All of this puts the adolescent in a particularly vulnerable situation (Kane et al., 1974; Cvetkovich, Grote, Lieberman & Miller, 1978; Landy, 1983). Heterosexual behavior may, as well, serve as "proof" of her mature femininity, alleviating any fears of homosexuality (Barglow Bornstein, Wright & Visotsky, 1968; D'Angelli & D'Angelli, 1977). But, since she may be unable to accept her own actions and rationally prepare for sex, her behavior may seem irresponsible (to adults) (Kegan, 1969; Babakian et al, 1971; Furstenberg, 1976, 1981). Jurick and Jurick explain, "Each sexual standard requires a certain level of logic along a continuum of intellectual sophistication" (1974, p.738). The adolescent's simplistic, perhaps idealistic, inability to foresee consequences may cause her to overlook the very real possibility of unwanted and unintended pregnancy (Aug & Wright, 1970; Moore, 1985). She may not act consciously and deliberately to bear an out-of-wedlock child, but behave in such a way that this becomes an "inevitable result" (Young, 1945, p. 105). The way in which she deals with these and other decision-making issues may be indicative of her preferences in coping patterns.

### Stability of Coping Patterns

While certain problem areas of immaturity and cognitive development have been well documented clinically and form



much of the basis for studies and programs presently underway, it must be recognized that some of these areas are still speculation and in need of verification. It seems, however, that we still do not fully understand many of these patterns of behavior. For example, little has been done to examine characteristic modes of coping, i.e., individual styles of dealing with and managing daily events. This study will focus on certain responses to situations and problems, identified as coping patterns. This examination of teens' methods of coping may indicate that their behavior is part of the cumulative cause rather than a result of life situations (Condy, 1984).

A number of authors have emphasised the stability of most personality factors and characteristic traits over the decades of the life span and suggest that their form is general enough to study. Traits or coping patterns may be viewed as "stylistic consistencies" in studying the forms of interpersonal behavior (Schutz, 1973; Hogan DeSoto & Solano, 1977). Gormly and Edelberg (1974) suggest that there are some generalized ways of behaving that can be observed across a variety of situations and Paunonen adds "Individual laws complement general laws in determining utility of traditional nomothetically based strategies in the psychological assessments to fulfill the requirements of modern measurement standards" (1974, p. 486). This view is

given still more weight by Olsen (1986) who concludes that a summary of prior behaviors is more predictive of sub-segments of that behavior than other indications.

Identified by Allport as early as the 1930s and popularized later by Maslow and others, the study of relatively stable personality traits has gone full cycle in research theory. Suggesting that aggregate behavior over numerous situations is relevant and consistent, Allport affirmed that trait behavior is of use in predicting personality assessment. While the evidence is sketchy, it does suggest that it may be beneficial to study coping patterns which are recognized as consistent and enduring.

It must be noted, however, that much of this work has been drawn from clinical case studies which, at times, may be generalized from more severe problems of adaptation. But its study remains valid in this case since ritual sexual activity is relatively private and voluntary in nature, and thus more likely to be a function of the characteristic of the individual and her relationships (Mac Corquodale & De Lameter, 1979; Darabi, Gorham & Philliber, 1982).

While it is recognized that certain developmental characteristics as well as life circumstances (i.e., immaturity, egocentrism, demographics, poverty, etc.) weigh heavily upon an adolescent's actions and lifestyle, there is a considerable body of evidence to suggest that these

factors do not completely account for her behavior (Babakian et al., 1971; Singh, 1980). She may face difficulty in trying to cope with every day life situations in a realistic manner (Cohen, 1983; Landy et al., 1983; Miller et al., 1974). It is suggested that the teen's coping patterns may reflect her generally immature development and mirror the chaotic factors which influence her. Several forms of coping or defense mechanisms have been indicated as significant within the personality structure of girls who have become pregnant.

#### An Interpersonal Model

William Schutz has long been involved in the testing of coping patterns and has devised various instruments for this purpose. According to Schutz, coping mechanisms are both measurable and predictable. Through postulates concerning interpersonal needs and reactions, he has identified certain types as the most common: among these are Denial, Isolation, Projection, Rejection and Turning-Against-Self.

Schutz, a long time proponent of the hypothesis that people interact in a specific manner because of established patterns in response to their needs, has developed a set of principles regarding them. Labeling his theory the "constancy principle", assuming that an adult will act as she did as a child, Schutz concluded that there are certain



characteristic patterns of interaction exhibited by both individuals and groups. According to Schutz, a relationship of behavior between orientation and attitudes will result in predictable consequences. Since these factors will follow the same sequence from circumstance to circumstance, they are both measurable and predictable allowing for formulas to be drawn to isolate and measure them. The Principles of Constancy are based on the following:

I. A. Every person has three needs, inclusion, control and affection.

B. Inclusion, control and affection are a sufficient set of areas for prediction and explanation of interpersonal phenomena.

II. Expressed interaction patterns of behavior are similar to and consistent with those displayed by an individual in his earliest inter-relationships. This is termed the Principle of Constancy (1961).

Interpersonal needs are the requirement of establishing satisfactory relationships between one's self and others: people will orient themselves toward others in characteristic ways. Therefore, if specific types of orientation are known, behavior and interaction may be understood by targeting the identification of certain defense mechanisms. To further develop this theory, Schutz established COPE (Coping Operations Preference Enquiry) to

focus on these patterns of behavior and FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior) to measure the degree of inclusion, control and affection, the necessary components of them. Each of the five types of coping patterns, as outlined in COPE, will be considered. The first is Denial.

Recognizing the symbolic nature of sex as an act of rebellion (Chilman, 1979), teens may identify sex as a situational coping pattern. The "fun morality" of the 1980s adds to this type of coping method as well. Sensation seeking, in the form of novelty, adventure and high activity, heightened by familial and societal permissiveness, may increase the individual's tendency toward denial as a coping mechanism (Elster, Panzarine & McAnarney, 1980; Zongker, 1977). Summed up in a modern day cliché, "If it feels good, do it!" - but the girl may deny possible negative consequences. The inability to postpone immediate gratification may be coupled with a sense of fantasy because some girls believe that they are immune from pregnancy because they are sterile or too young to conceive, because of sporadic sexual activity, or because of their conviction that reality is reversible (Ross, 1979; Davis, 1980; Jones & Placek, 1981; Resnick, 1984). This "magical belief in their own uniqueness convinces them of their invincibility" (Elster et al., 1980, p. 72), so that each

time a pregnancy does not occur, it re-enforces and strengthens this illusion caused by egocentrism.

Adolescence, as a stage of growth, is often a period of transition to more mature cognitive development, a time when youth may be locked into the present (Ooms, 1981; Smith, Nenny, Weisman & Mumford, 1984; Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry: Committee on Adolescence, 1968). It has been suggested, however, that denial may be practiced to a greater degree by girls who become pregnant as teenagers. As a defense mechanism, it allows the ego to operate at a less threatening level, setting aside any fear of the consequences of their actions, seemingly to a disproportionate degree among pregnant and parenting teens. That they are present oriented and exhibit less abstract, logical and conceptual reasoning ability has been well documented (Ooms, 1981; Cartoof, 1984; Smith et al., 1984; Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1968). About teens, Chilman notes, "His view of the future is restricted; he may grasp the effects of today upon tomorrow but not the day after tomorrow" (1980, p. 496). This coping pattern, commonly seen in daily activities, appears to spill over into the intimate relationships of the sexually active girl. This may explain the behavior of the majority of pregnant teens who have indicated that they do not use contraceptives or that they do not use them regularly (Ross, 1970; Resnick,

1984). To adult reasoning, they may seem almost idiotically unaware of the potential seriousness of many of their actions. This may be interpreted as a "deficit of adequate coping behavior" (Zongker, 1977) and allow the teen to not accept the reality that she is sexually active.

For pregnant teens, many of whom spend excessive amounts of time outside of the home, a sense of belonging and well being seem to be absent (Elster et al., 1980; Jones, et al., 1981; Ralph et al., 1984). Though they may seek closer identification with a group, their behavior may represent a coping pattern of Isolation, in effect an attempt to remove themselves from affective responses. This form of coping allows them to see the world in terms of ideas and thoughts rather than feelings. The teen may act as though an event were impersonal and may be unable or unwilling to internalize it through her emotions; this may indicate that she is at an immature stage of cognitive development (Maslow, 1954; Schutz, 1961; Ericson, 1964; Kohlberg, 1981; Kegan, 1982). Isolation may allow a girl to disassociate with affective involvement (Baizerman, Sheehan, Ellison & Schlesinger, 1973; Cobliner, 1974) but, at the same time, to use her physical readiness for sex as a self-determined measure of maturity (Sorensen, 1973; Chilman, 1980; Landy et al., 1983). This form of coping may be compounded for these girls by feelings that friendships,



especially with other girls, are not of much value (Abernethy, Robinsson, Balswick & King, 1979). Yet they still desire approval from their peer group, an approval they may seek to achieve through stereotypical sexual behavior (Zongker, 1977), for any form of attention may be seen as nurturing and positive. However, sex doesn't mean love (Chilman, 1980) and may be performed as a compulsive, almost unconscious act with no practical or ethical considerations (Landy et al., 1980).

Projection, a coping preference allowing one to blame others, provides an adolescent with an escape from facing responsibility (Schutz, 1961; Cohen, 1983). A passive, dependent personality, typical of the socialization of the female in our culture, may tend to encourage this behavior, especially if the girl is effected by peer standards or pressure (McAnerney & Stickle, 1981; Philliber, 1983). If the adolescent realistically attributes what she determines as objectionable self-characteristics to other people, projection occurs. It may increase the adolescent's belief that her life is under external control (Abernethy, 1974; Cobliner, 1974; Shah et al., 1975) as blaming others and looking to others for answers to her everyday problems easily satisfies a coping need to avoid responsibility and allow self-indulgence.

Regression or increased dependency provides another



form of escape and may relate to the observation of general immaturity among teen mothers (Young, 1945; Schutz, 1961; Erikson, 1964; Barglow et al., 1968; Kohlberg, 1981). If the adolescent reaction is coping through regression, she depends upon others to solve her personal problems. Because of a negative self-perception, a passive dependency may translate in her mind into the belief that she has a need for protection, especially from her boyfriend. Sex, then, becomes a personal resource which offers a defense against the world as well as insuring continuity of the male/female relationship with the adolescent expecting an improved social life as an added bonus (Ward, 1983; Chilman, 1983). Concluding that her mate should protect her (as in the use of contraceptives) and consigning control over her life to him may cause her to fall easy prey to aggressive males throughout her life (Zongker, 1977; Chilman, 1983). This may be explained, as Lind suggests, because "Subjects cognitively see decision making as a masculine activity" (1985, p.89). Her clinging and in-need-of-protection life style increases her chances of early and possibly unwanted pregnancy (Kantner & Zelnick, 1972; Zelnick, 1981, Chilman, 1983). Regression tends to be a coping pattern of these teenagers which persists into adulthood (Kegan, 1982). If this happens, the youngster may feel it necessary to censure those other individuals for the results of her own behavior.

Thus, her boyfriend because of his involvement, her parents because of her upbringing, her peers because of their permissiveness, and numerous other people, ideas or institutions become miscreants in her pregnancy (Schutz, 1961; Kane et al., 1974; Rogel, 1980; Howell & Frese, 1982; Protinsky, et al., 1982).

Occasionally the adolescent who becomes pregnant will exhibit personal behavior characteristics which are diametrically opposed to dependency; she may feel that she has complete responsibility for everything that happens. In the end, she may Turn-Against-Self and suffer unwarranted guilt, remorse and regret (Schutz, 1961; Kane, 1974; Pattern, 1981). This behavior characteristic, though obviously opposite to regression, may cause the adolescent to display similar behavior, such as apathy, defensiveness and aggression (Zongker, 1977; Landy et al., 1983). (While noted in some research findings, Turning-Against-Self, as a defense mechanism, has been questioned by Schutz in his later work. It is, therefore, given only minimal significance here.)

In addition to the five coping mechanisms discussed -- Denial, Isolation, Projection, Regression and Turning-Against-Self -- Schutz and other authors suggest that patterns of inclusion, control and affection, as addressed in FIRO-B, may be different among the parenting teen

population. These three factors examined in terms of both expressed behavior and wanted behavior, relate directly to the adolescent's social and emotional worlds and the way in which she handles them. The need for Inclusion, her drive for fulfilling peer relationships as well as familial acceptance which she may see as lacking, may cause her to adapt a "sex given in order to get" philosophy (Chilman, 1980; Cohen, 1983). Strengthened by a preference to honor teen values over traditional societal values, the youth may attempt to resolve these ambivalent relationships by resorting to traditional "safe" female roles, by desiring to please, by being nice and by getting along (Sorensen, 1973; Chilman, 1980). Her behavior refers directly to loneliness and to a pervasive desire for inclusion.

The degree to which people associate with others, or inclusion, appears to weigh heavily on early family relationships. A positive family life is crucial (Abernethy et al., 1975; Cohen, 1983). If unresolved parent/child conflicts exist, especially between the daughter and her mother, or if excessively intimate relationships occur between the daughter and her father, social as well as emotional problems may result (Landy et al., 1983; Compton et al., 1985). Characterized as neurotic social deviancy and conflict, inconsistent socialization may develop, especially regarding her peer relationships (Kane, et al.,

1974; Pattern, 1981; Cohen, 1983). This ambivalence in relationships may lead the girl to question what she is gaining from sex, a supposition made more difficult in that "Sex is very simple and love very complicated" (Goethals and Kloss, 1970, p. 191).

Control, as defined by Schutz, pertains to leadership or power within a relationship. It concerns the amount of influence a girl has in deciding the direction the dyad will take. This has been especially noted in studies of sexual behavior of teenage girls who often retain the power to defer sexual intimacy but, once it has been given, leave all responsibility for contraceptive use to their partners.

Her desire for Affection and love may be sought in sexual intimacy which the adolescent may view as positive and nourishing more accurately, it may represent a lack of true socialization (Abernethy et al., 1975; Polit, Kahn, Murray & Smith, 1982). Faulk, Gispert, and Baucom (1981) again suggest loneliness as an explanation: "One of the keys to understanding the girl in conflict is her feelings of loneliness in the faceless, anonymous world of adults" (1966, p. 70). Her attempts at resolving this loneliness, however, may further her social isolation (Nye & Lambert, 1980).

Yet another area in the attempt to understand the pregnant teenage girl concerns her response to pressures.



Internal pressures, defined for the purposes of the original survey, consist of moral decisions and attitudes. These may weigh heavily on her behavior even though the teen may refuse cognitively to acknowledge them: she may identify high pleasure-seeking desires and respond to their impulse but resist facing the psychological costs (Cvetkovitch, 1978). She may see herself trapped between societal norms, admittedly lessened in recent years, and the influences of a peer tolerant sub-culture (Sorensen, 1973; Dornbush, Carlsmith, Gross, Martins, Jennings & Rosenberg, 1981; Chilman, 1983). Impulse control and pleasure seeking may negate each other (Chilman, 1983) and serve as causal and contributing variables rather than barriers (Bartha, Schinke & Maxwell, 1983). Dornbush explains, "personal issues are organized within a conceptual framework distinct from matters of convenience or morality. Thus moral violations of a personal nature are seen as more wrong than violations of a social convention (to the teen)" (1981, p. 120).

At the same time, external pressures may affect her decision making. External pressures, as defined for the purpose of the original survey, refers to both peer and adult attitudes and mores as they affect the individual teen. More sexual freedom, especially as a result of the early women's movement and, on a personal level, perhaps as generational recidivism within her own family, may strongly



influence her. Her friends may indicate that sex equals maturity and establishes independence (Jurick et al., 1974; Elster et al., 1980; Falk et al., 1981). The foregoing has been presented to suggest a link between the tentative and speculative conclusions drawn from the diverse, scattered, and primarily clinical literature on teen pregnancies to the concepts of Schutz' model.

### Three Case Studies

Three studies, each with a focus on adolescent sexuality and related coping behavior will be looked at more closely. The first follows up on a series of studies on deviancy proneness which were conducted in 1968, 1973 and 1975. Shirley L. Jessor and Richard Jessor, writing in Developmental Psychology in 1975, were among the earliest to propose that theoretical differences exist in the psychological development of young people and that these differences effect adolescents' sexual behavior.

In their article "Transition From Virginity to Non-Virginity Among Youth: A Social-Psychological Study" the Jessors conclude that there are systematic differences on measures of variables and that these differences may be observed prior to the loss of virginity, perhaps signaling its onset. Drawing on a total of 608 high school and college students (high school male virgins N=136, non-virgins N=50; high school female virgins N=149, non-virgins

N=93; college male virgins N=14, non-virgins N=15; college female virgins N=15, non-virgins N=87), their research surveyed the areas of personality with 12 items, perceived social environment with seven items and perceived behavior through three items. Overall, it suggests that non-virgins show greater deviance, place lower value on life expectations, achievement, and religiosity and higher value on independence. Furthermore, non-virgins expressed less parent compatibility and more peer influence in areas of approval and role modeling.

A comparison of mean scores for the high school girls involved in the Jessors' research and related to items in this study include the need and desire for affection. Virgins ranked the need for affection higher, at 71.2 while the non-virgins' mean score was 65.8; correspondingly the mean scores relating to desire for affection were 61.5 and 58.5 respectively. Similar scores were indicated in the area of achievement, 59.2 and 50.8. Virgins rated family support and influence higher as well, with scores of 7.8 and 7.1, and parental control at 6.1 and 5.5 respectively. Parent-friend compatibility scores were notably higher at 8.8 and 7.5 as were the mean scores of parent's attitude toward deviance at 11.6 and 10.4. Church attendance during the last year and religiosity both ranked higher among virgins, with church attendance having mean scores of 30.6 for virgins as

opposed to 15.0 for non-virgins and religiosity scoring 16.6 and 14.3.

The Jessors found several areas where non-virgins recorded higher mean scores. Among these were attitudes towards friends. Non-virgins indicate that they strive for the approval of friends at a higher rate than do virgins, 12.3 and 10.2, and that they more often see their friends as role models, 12.9 and 10.2; they also indicate that their peers influence them more than their parents do with mean scores higher than the virgins' mean scores, 3.9 and 3.5. Non-virgins view deviance as acceptable behavior with scores for the two groups at 17.4 and 15.5 and they indicate that they have acted in what they determine as deviant in the past year more often than virgins, 41.0 and 35.8. They view sex as negative behavior more often as well, with mean scores for the non-virgins at 18.6 and for the virgins at 13.0. The non-virgins indicated that independence is more important with scores of 78.8 and 76.0.

The Jessor study, conducted on a random sampling of both sexes during year four of one group's high school and year four of the second group's college experience appears to be weak in certain areas. For example, only 14 male and 15 female college virgins were included in the population sampled and they may not have been truly representative of all college students. Also, terminology such as "attitude

toward deviance" and parent friend compatibility" tends to be ambiguous and confusing. Considering their earlier studies on deviance proneness, conducted in 1968, 1973, and 1975, the question of bias arises. However, 19 of 25 items involving high school girls proved significant, as did 14 items for high school males, 8 for college females and 7 for college males. All of these findings coincide with other more clinical studies in describing the attitudes and behavior of these two populations.

A second study, "The Self-Concept of Pregnant Adolescent Girls" by Calvin E. Zongker (1977), involved 88 pregnant adolescents and a control group of 108 non-pregnant teens. Citing earlier studies concerning self-esteem as a factor in teenage pregnancy, Zongker concluded that personality factors, influenced by myriad other variables, suggest promising areas for further research. Using a step discriminate analysis, Zongker notes significant differences between the two groups on 13 of 27 variables, three involving demographics, three in self-concept and seven in clinical personality characteristics in which he looked at deviance. Overall, the mean score among the control group was 13.6 and for the experimental group, 27.7.

The teenage mothers studied indicated a lesser sense of self-adequacy and value as a person and perceived themselves to be lower in importance than their peers. They expressed



a greater degree of dissatisfaction with and less integration within their families. Zongker's study shows them to be inconsistent in their self-perceptions, however. They appear weak in coping skills causing them to deny any negative aspects of themselves and to be defensive in their reactions. They display impulsiveness, irrational behavior and risk-taking in their attempts to deal with stress and decision making made worse by their characteristic lack of information with which to solve problems and inability in effective interpersonal communications. This general maladjustment may cause or allow them to develop an unrealistic understanding of life, including their own sexuality and the task of motherhood.

Zongker has, for many years, been involved in research in this area; his methods of conducting his studies, as well as his apparently objective conclusion, lend credence to his theories. He cautiously suggests personality traits as one of perhaps several causative factors in unwanted teenage pregnancy but offers no suggestions as to manner by which to deal with this issue.

Adolescent Sexuality in a Changing American Society, published by the National Institute of Health in 1980, was written by Catherine S. Chilman. She summarizes that moral development of sex related attitudes and behavior is closely linked to cognitive development, especially in the process



of moving through sequential stages from present oriented concepts to more abstract, complex principles. Some teens cope with the impulse of high pleasure seeking and immediate gratification while others deny the existence of danger in their actions; the ability to reason logically in terms of cost-benefit appears to be weak or absent. It is this inability to move from the real to the possible and to deduce potential outcomes that are indications of immature cognitive development.

Chilman discusses biological and hormonal influences that lead an organism to organize itself into a male/female type brain which may lead to different levels of responsiveness to stimuli. These factors, she explains, may effect sexual identification with males more likely to become dominant personalities with greater ability to grasp abstract principles and concepts and females more likely to become dependent and tend toward making choices arbitrarily on impulse. The woman is more likely to be more dependent and vulnerable than her male peers, recognizing a certain social desirability in this passive orientation towards life. This low self-esteem, as identified by dependency and fatalistic attitudes, tends to persist into adulthood. Like the the young adolescent, she may be locked into the present.

Chilman's study, though differing from most of the

literature in terms of cause but agreeing in terms of effect, poses an interesting theory. If she is correct in concluding that biological causes may indirectly influence the development of personality traits including coping patterns, a whole new approach toward pregnancy prevention may be called for. Further investigation is needed to support or disprove her theory.

### Preliminary Conclusions

Recognizing that better health and earlier physical maturity (including younger menarch) place the young girl in jeopardy of negative consequences from sex and pregnancy earlier than such events entered the lives of females of earlier generations only begins to identify the external pressures faced by them in today's society. Remote or rejecting parents (Young, 1954) and restrictions over the female's behavior (Jekel, Klerman & Bancroft, 1973; Kane et al., 1974) add to the toll. At the same time that the adolescent fights the adult world and its controls (Schofield, 1966), she undergoes intensive allegiances to her peer group and is likely to conform to peer influence (Schofield, 1966; Schenke, Gilchrist & Small, 1979; Falk et al., 1981). As a result, she may find herself freer to explore and experiment than have members of past generations (Jessor et al., 1975; Schenke & Gilchrist, 1977; Chilman,

1980). Still she may meet failure in many of these areas, some of which may be avoided by the teaching of practical, survival techniques like home life and childcare skills. Other endeavors, such as educational and vocational training, may give her greater options for her life style, while still others may improve her self-esteem and ability to react within relationships. These abilities appear to be essential to the well being, both present and future, of the young girl and her baby.

While recognizing the effects of immaturity, especially in the area of cognitive development, gender identity and personality disturbance, it may be too simplistic to attempt to explain the pregnant adolescent's behavior in this way. Maturity eventually displaces immaturity; other behavioral traits, like coping patterns, tend to persist throughout life making them an appropriate medium for the study of adolescent behavior and its causes. Though relatively little study has been undertaken in the area of coping mechanisms, there is a body of evidence that indicates that the regulation of sexual behavior may be found within them. Predicting the probability of a tendency toward early pregnancy from a study of established coping patterns has been suggested in earlier works. The National Institute of Health concludes, "We are left with the realization that the major task of uncovering the details of healthy patterns of

adolescent coping is still a matter for future research"  
(1980, p. 4).

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was the identification of certain interpersonal needs and coping patterns or defense mechanisms as they are practiced by adolescent girls who have become pregnant and to suggest ways in which these patterns differ from or are more or less pronounced in these teen mothers than in their peers who are not parenting.

#### Design

This study was a comparison of interpersonal needs and coping patterns as they were self-reported by a group of parenting teens and by a group of matched non-parenting adolescents. To determine these characteristics, the Schutz COPE (Coping Operations Preference Enquiry) and FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior) scales and one original inventory were administered.

#### Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that certain differences in coping patterns would exist between girls who are parenting as teenagers and those who are not. Specifically, it was predicted that girls who are parenting would score higher in the areas of denial and isolation on the COPE scale and



higher on "desired behavior" and lower in "expressed behavior" on the FIRO-B scales of inclusion, control and affection. Further, it was expected that parenting teens would score higher in the external pressures and risk-taking clusters of the original survey and lower in internal pressures cluster.

### Subjects

Adolescent girls were recruited from various summer programs run by social service agencies in three southeastern Massachusetts cities of similar size, economic and cultural make-up. Each city has an approximate population of just under 100,000, a strong manufacturing-based economy and a multi-ethnic population. The population includes many bi-lingual or non-English speaking families including second and third generation immigrants predominately from Portugal or the Cape Verde Islands, and more recent immigrants of Hispanic and Asian ethnic origins.

A total of 95 adolescents participated in this study. Of these, 51 were teens, ranging in age from 13 years to 20 years, who had given birth to one or more offspring during the previous 2 years. Fourteen members of this group were unable to complete the questionnaires even when each section was explained orally and the segments read aloud; 7 others partially completed the battery of instruments. The 28

packets completed by the parenting teens were the only ones used in the final analysis.

Forty four non-parenting teens were involved in this study; however, 3 failed to return their surveys and 1 survey was returned incomplete. Since demographic matching between the parenting and non-parenting girls was determined by age, education, ethnic/racial group and religious affiliation, of the 40 who completed the materials 8 were eliminated in order to create a matched control group. Those not included were 1 subject who was too young (12 years), 2 who were black non-Hispanic and 5 who had religious orientations which did not correspond to members of the parenting group.

Despite the original intent of including a minimum of 100 girls in this study, the final groups consisted of 28 parenting teens and 32 non-parenting adolescents. It was expected that some teens who had been pregnant but elected abortion would be included. In the final sample, this group was not represented.

As summarized in Table 1, the sample, consisting of 60 teenage girls, included 24 teens in the 14/15 age category, 22 girls who were 16/17 and 14 individuals who were 18/20. Of these, 10 of the youngest group were parenting as compared to 9 members in each of the two older age categories. With respect to education, 41 had completed at

Table 1: The numbers of subjects of the non-parenting (N=32) and parenting (N=28) samples according to age now, last grade of school completed, religion and race

	<u>Non- Parenting</u>	<u>Parenting</u>	<u>Total</u>
<u>Age</u>			
14/15	14	10	24
16/17	13	9	22
19/20	5	9	14
<u>Education</u>			
Grades 9/11	22	19	41
Grade 12	10	9	19
<u>Religion</u>			
Catholic	17	9	26
Protestant	15	19	34
<u>Race</u>			
Caucasian	23	15	38
Hispanic Caucasian	2	2	4
Hispanic Black	7	11	18

least the 9th grade and 19 others had finished high school. Among the mothers, 19 were in the first group and 9 were high school graduates. Catholic participants included 9 parenting teens as compared to 19 mothers among the Protestant adolescents. Racially, 15 Caucasian members, 2 Hispanic Caucasians and 11 Hispanic Blacks were parenting.

### Instruments

Three test instruments and a demographic identifier were used. The tests are Schutz' Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE) and Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B), both standardized tests based on his theory of interpersonal relationships, and an original attitudes survey, focusing on traditional demographic information, developed for this research. The demographics were used to establish matched groups.

Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE) was designed to indicate an individual's preference among certain defense mechanisms. These include Denial (a preference not to allow one's self to be aware of anxiety), Isolation (a preference to see the world in terms of ideas and thoughts rather than emotions and feelings), Projection (a preference to blame others), Regression (a preference to be dependent upon others to solve one's personal problems) and Turning-Against-Self (a preference to take full responsibility for everything). Using hypothetical

characters involved in stress-producing situations, the participant is asked to rank order five possible responses. More descriptive than evaluative, COPE is a projective test used to identify personal coping systems in terms of the subject's preferences.

Consequently, each score is dependent upon all other scores in the unit. Because of its descriptive nature, no indications of reliability are reported nor are indications of validity provided (Schutz, 1958). (See Appendix A.)

FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior) is a 54 item Guttman format ordinal scale in which participants are asked to indicate their preference from the given choices concerning their behavior towards other people. Designed for use with students in grades 9 through 16, 6 basic questions are repeated with slight variations 9 times each. The analysis of the items results in 6 sub-scores in the areas of inclusion (the degree to which one associates with others), control (the degree to which one assumes responsibility toward or dominates others) and affection (the degree to which one becomes emotionally involved with others). Sub-scores for each of these components may also be obtained for expressed behavior (how one interacts with others) and wanted behavior (how one wants others to interact with her). The test is not devised to measure quantity of a specific behavior, but



to indicate the kinds and ranges of behavior which the respondents identify as the type of characteristic behavior which they personally exhibit (Gluck, 1983). Schutz (1978) indicates that participants may modify their responses without changing the meaningfulness of their score.

FIRO-B is a measuring device which requires that the internal consistency of the test itself be unidimensional and that all items occur in given order. Further, reproducibility co-efficients are at least .80, with most responses exceeding .90. Test/re-test reliability co-efficients range from .71 to .82. (See Appendix B.)

A 25 point original questionnaire made up of single statements concerning a variety of situations and opinions for which there are no right or wrong answers was constructed for use in this study. It addressed three content categories or clusters with presumed face validity, internal pressures, external pressures and risk-taking. A pilot test of this survey had been conducted earlier and test items were reworked when deemed necessary. Responses were indicated by circling the choice which most nearly expressed the participant's opinion.

Internal pressures referred to one's attitudes and moral positions regarding sex and sexuality and her ethical philosophy concerning sexual behavior. Some of the questions dealt with the adolescent's acceptance of personal

responsibility for one's actions and their results, areas in part related to Schutz' Denial, Projection, Regression and Turning-Against-Self. External pressures, as they affect one's behavior but not necessarily her feelings, included peer attitudes as well as adult positions and general societal norms. Each girl was asked to evaluate how much responsibility she accepted as a result of these constraints imposed upon her. These relate to Schutz' Isolation category. The coping mechanism which allows an individual to be involved in an act without considering possible outcomes was also addressed. Risk-taking, somewhat parallel to Schutz' Denial, was considered an indication of level of responsibility. (In scoring, it was necessary to invert the value of certain questions to achieve a positive responsibility score.) (See Appendix C.)

A survey of demographic factors was also included. Upon review, because of the weakness within the construction of several items, only 4 of the original 10 categories were used. As summarized in Figure 1, the factors which formed the basis for matching groups were age now, last year of schooling completed, race and religion. (See Appendix D.)

### Procedures

Agencies serving the youth population in each city were contacted to request cooperation in the collection of data

for this research. A brief overview of the project, including sample sets of all instruments, was submitted. In each city, one or more professionals from either a parenting program, a women's center or a YWCA/YMCA agreed to participate. Following further discussion, it was decided that this researcher would attend a regularly scheduled meeting of the appropriate teen group, at which time members were informed of the purpose and scope of the study. The option was given for individuals who preferred not to participate to join an alternate activity but no one in any group elected to do so.

Those individuals who volunteered to participate were later contacted, first by mail and then by phone. Each was informed of several meetings scheduled at times and places convenient for the girls and each was asked to select one meeting to attend.

Wherever needed, transportation was provided. At each meeting, the purpose of the research was explained and volunteers were asked to sign appropriate forms indicating their understanding of the intent of the project as well as the procedure for collection and use of the information gathered. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured for all subsequent activities.

The survey materials were distributed as a packet in the following order: COPE, FIRO-B, attitudes survey and

demographic questionnaire. Each girl completed her packet independently from the others. No time limitations were imposed but no one required more than one hour. All materials were collected simultaneously and stored for later evaluation. After the testing had been completed, girls who were interested in remaining joined a discussion on the general topic of teenage pregnancy. While much of the information gained during these discussions was interesting, little was of significance for analysis.

### Data Analysis

All 28 of the parenting teens and the matched group of 32 non-parenting adolescents were used in the analysis of the data. These groups were compared, first, in all areas and, later, in 10 specific categories deemed most significant according to the test results and a review of the literature. These areas included the Denial section of COPE, all six subscores of FIRO-B and the three clusters of the survey. The following analyses were performed.

1. The mean and standard deviations were computed for the two groups on the five item COPE scale, the six item FIRO-B instrument and all 25 items of the original survey as well as their composite scores.
2. Mean descriptive profiles for both groups on the COPE and FIRO-B scales were plotted.
3. A group by age analysis of variance design was used



to compare the two groups and three ages on the COPE Denial scores, the six FIRO-B subscores and the three composite scores of the attitudes survey. Age was specified as a controlling factor for maturity in determining the consistency of coping patterns. It must be noted, however, that maturity or immaturity may not be singled out as the only, or even necessarily the most important, factor.

4. A discriminate analysis to determine the major sources of variance between parenting teens and non-parenting teens was completed. This analysis involved 10 measures, the Denial scores from COPE, all subscores from FIRO-B and the three cluster scores of the survey.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study compared 28 parenting adolescent girls with a matched group of 32 non-parenting adolescent girls (N=60). The instruments used included William Schutz' Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE) and his Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation- Behavior (FIRO-B), both designed to identify a person's characteristic methods of coping, as well as an original 25 item survey to explore these teenagers' attitudes toward sex and sexuality. (See Appendix E.)

A demographics questionnaire was also used to facilitate matching between the two groups based on age, schooling, race and religion. Of the original 49 teenage mothers who participated in this study, only 28 were able to complete the battery of tests despite repeated clarification of both the directions and the questions. This compares with 40 of the 44 non-parenting girls who successfully completed the survey. The high rate of failure to complete the battery occurred despite the use of the adolescent form of the COPE, specifically designed and pretested on adolescent populations. Many parenting teens were unable to read the directions; after these were given orally, the same teens were unable to comprehend and follow

the instructions. Especially perplexing to them was the process of rank ordering the given choices on the test. These teen mothers seemed frustrated by the task and then seemed to easily accept their own failure. This poor performance by the teenage mothers appears to parallel the experiences of other researchers who have noted a lack of basic skills among this population and a corresponding lack of success in school as well as an increased rate of drop outs (Chilman, 1983). Similarly, inadequate work related skills and an increased rate of failure at the work place have also been noted among teenage mothers (Pattern, 1983).

#### The COPE Scale

The results of COPE were analyzed first by comparison of the two groups using a profile analysis of the five inter-related scores. In Figure 1, the mean scores on each of the five COPE scales are drawn as test profiles for the parenting group (P), for the non-parenting group (N) and for a large comparison adult sample (N=5,848) as reported in the Schutz manual (S) (1978). As can be seen in Figure 1, the profile for the non-parenting group is similar in pattern to that of the large Schutz comparison group. For both groups, the mean Denial scores are relatively high, the Turning-Against-Self scores low, with the other three scores somewhat in between. It should be noted that a high

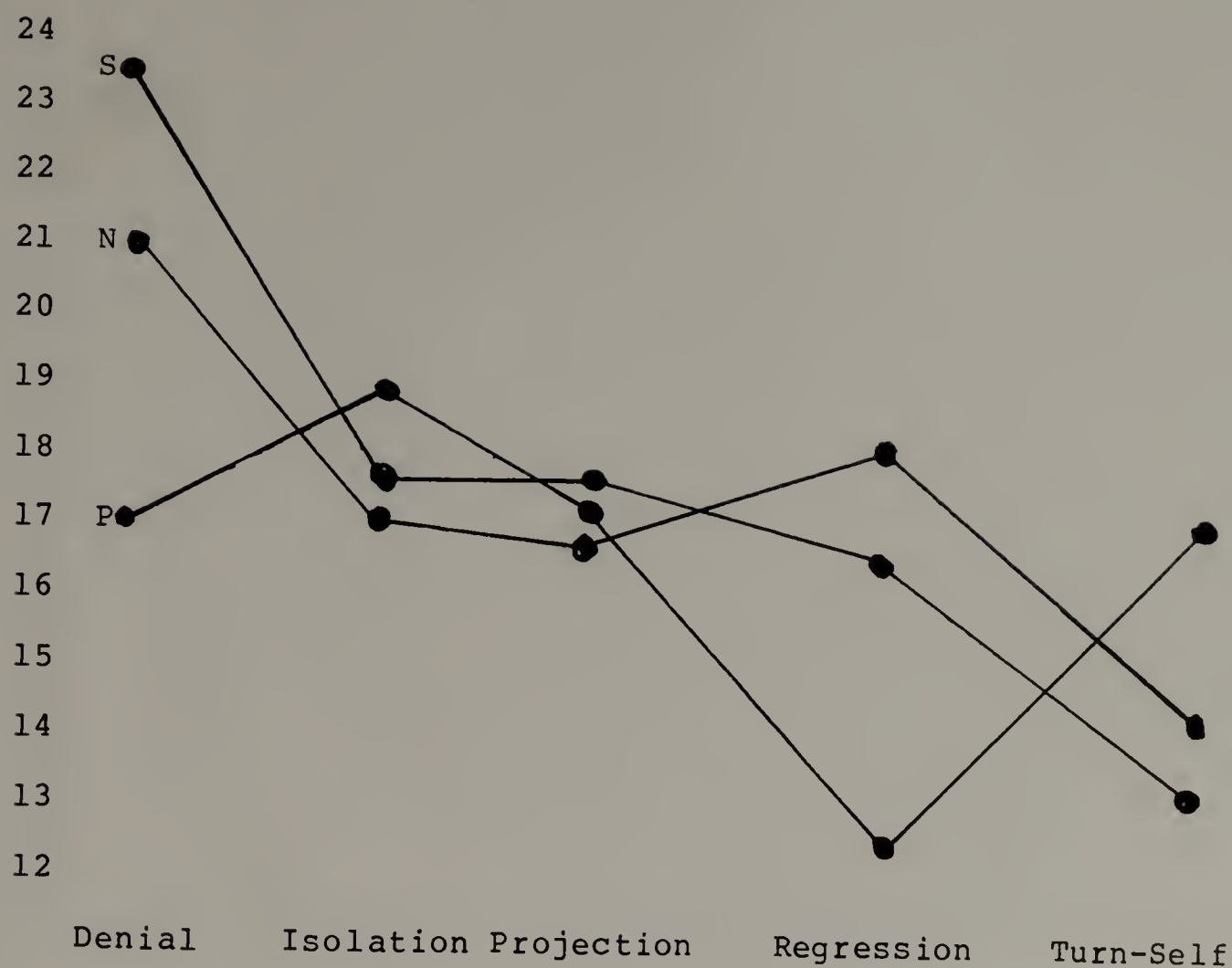


Figure 1: The mean scores of the five COPE segments drawn as a profile for the parenting group (P), for the non-parenting group (N) and for a large comparison adult sample from Schutz' study (S).

numerical score on these scales indicates a low preference or rating for this coping mechanism. Thus, the Denial scores of both the control and the Schutz groups indicate that this coping pattern is their least favored choice. Conversely, Turning-Against-Self, with the lowest mean raw scores for these two groups, is the most preferred coping mechanism.

The profile for the parenting group (P) is different in overall pattern, particularly with respect to the end points. The Denial mean score is markedly lower, a difference of 3.7 in the mean scores, indicating a higher preference for this mechanism. The Turning-Against-Self and to a lesser extent the Isolation scores are somewhat higher than the others. The mean score for teen mothers on Regression is markedly lower than the other groups indicating that this is the groups preferred response choice.

For further descriptive analyses, the mean raw scores on each of the COPE scale, for the two groups were converted to decile scores based on the Schutz norms reported in the test inventory (1978). These converted scores, used descriptively only, are presented as profiles in Figure 2. Again, the profile for the non-parenting (control) group is similar to that of the large adult comparison group reported by Schutz. The most frequently preferred strategy for coping in these two samples is Turning-Against-Self, but this is true in the normative population so these groups both

receive a mean decile score of 4. The least preferred strategy for these two groups, Denial, has a mean decile score of 7.0 and 6.0 for the teen control group and the adult sample respectively.

This indicated that the non-parenting group does use this response somewhat more than the normative population. The profile for the parenting group is again different in overall pattern. Particularly noteworthy is the converted mean Denial score at the 9th decile. This indicates an unusually high reported use of Denial in the parenting group when compared to the normative population. The teen mothers' mean decile score of 8 on Regression is also high, while the mean decile score of 2 for Turning-Against-Self is quite low. Because these scores are derived from rankings and are not independent, statistical analysis focused on only 1 of these scores, Denial.

A two-way analysis of variance comparing the two groups at three age levels on the Denial scores was conducted. The parenting group scored significantly lower ( $F=11.37$ ;  $P=.001$ ); that is, they preferred Denial more. The age comparison and the interaction between age and group were not significant.

The foregoing profile analysis indicates that the teen mothers selected the responses of Denial and Regression more than the non-parenting group and more than the normative



population (with decile scores of 9 and 8 respectively). Schutz defines Denial as a preference to not allow one's self to be aware of anxiety and to detach one's self from recognizing the possible results of one's actions and Regression as a tendency to be very dependent and to look to others for the answers to one's own problems (1978). Both of these types of responses are ones that avoid personal responsibility or mature awareness of the consequences of one's actions. Other authors have noted similar behavior patterns among pregnant and parenting adolescents (Reiss, 1967; Abernethy, 1974; Schinke et al., 1979).

#### The FIRO-B Scores

Figure 3 represents a comparison of the mean scores on each of the six FIRO-B scales drawn as a test profile for the parenting group (P) and for the non-parenting group (N). As can be seen in this figure, with the exception of the mean score for Wanted Inclusion, the mean scores for the control group (the non-parenting adolescents) are somewhat higher than those of the parenting group. In comparison with the control group, the profile of mean scores for the parenting group appears somewhat depressed.

A two way analysis of variance comparing the two groups at three age levels was conducted on each of the six independent scales. The parenting group scored significantly lower than the control group on three scales, these being

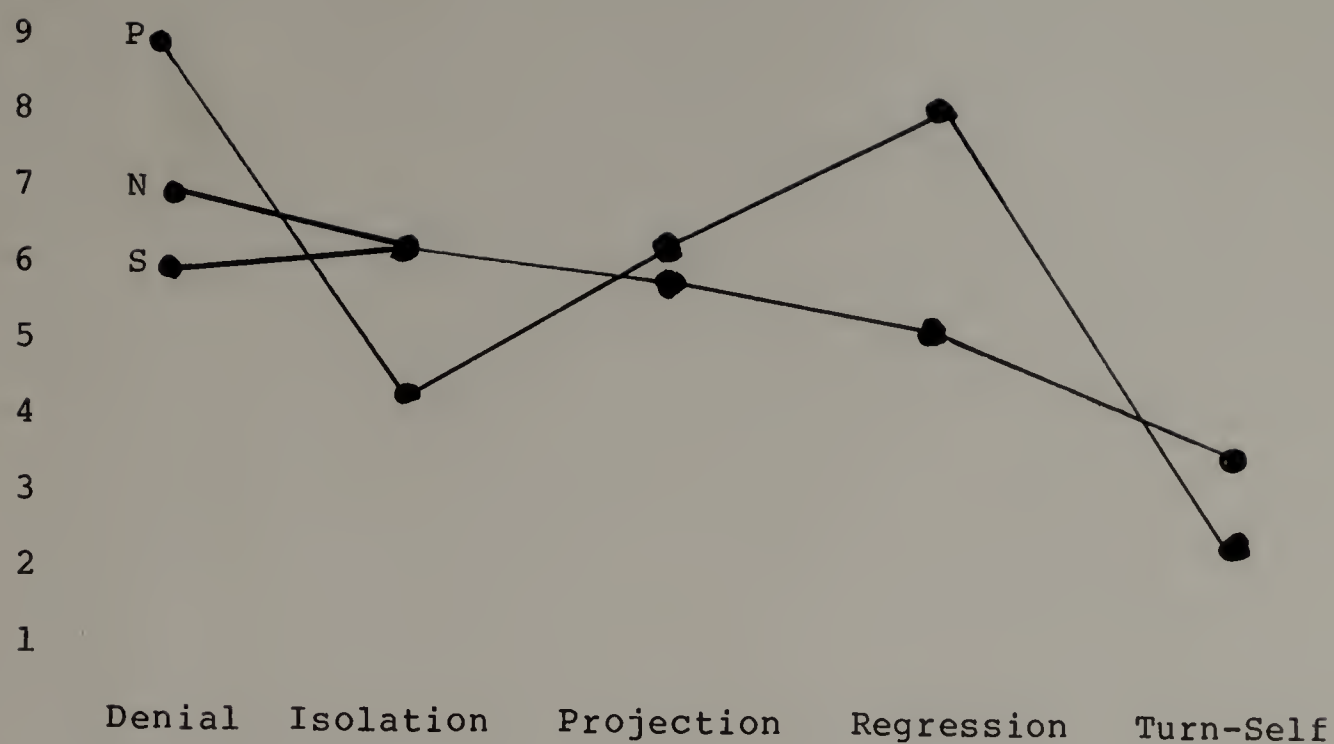


Figure 2: Mean scores converted to deciles for the five COPE scales displayed as test profiles for the parenting group (P), the non-parenting group (N) and a large adult comparison sample reported by Schutz (S).

Expressed Affection ( $F=9.68$ ;  $P=.003$ ), Wanted Affection ( $F=4.68$ ;  $P=.035$ ) and Wanted Control ( $F=4.92$ ;  $P=.031$ ). There was one barely significant age difference. Under Expressed Affection, the 15 and 16 year olds scored higher than did the younger or older subjects ( $F=3.30$ ;  $P=.045$ ). There was no significant age by group interaction for any of the six scales.

For further comparison, the FIRO-B profiles for the parenting and non-parenting groups of this study who compared with the scores of a sample of Radcliff College freshmen women aged 16 to 20 ( $N=228$ ). This group from Schutz' work was selected because it most closely matches the age levels of the sample population. As can be seen in Figure 4, the profile for the non-parenting teens in this study is similar to that of the college women in all components except Wanted Inclusion. The profile for the parenting teens is lower in 5 of the 6 areas and flat by comparison.

The parenting teens lower score in Wanted Control is confusing. These teen mothers were less willing to be influenced or controlled by others than were the their non-parenting peers. This, however, may be open to interpretation. One investigator who has dealt with the Schutz scales offers a possible explanation. Ryan (1977) suggests that a high score may reflect a "measure of

tolerance" rather than an abdication of control. He notes that this is the only area that "requires a differential interpretation for females". This may suggest that Wanted Control is more a measure of the female's position in society, her assigned "gender role", and acceptance of the traditional female role, rather than an indication of her individual characteristics. Perhaps then, the lower scores for parenting teens reflects more confusion with respect to their gender role.

Another possible explanation is that these lower scores in Wanted Control, like the lower Affection scores, reflect these teens negative past experiences. Family and peer relationships where a parent or boyfriend expressed high control may have caused a tendency by these girls to expect painful and negative consequences from emotional involvement. Several authors have pointed to patterns of authoritarian and abusive life styles and suggest causal ties between them and defense mechanisms such as those exhibited in this study (Lieberman, 1977; Krubliner, 1982). Thus, the parenting population, with generally lower scores, appears to lean more toward a loner life style suffering fear of inadequacy and rejection. Many find it simply easier to avoid a relationship by acting cool and distant or to adjust their behavior according to a constant influence of situational pressures than to strive for a more dominant

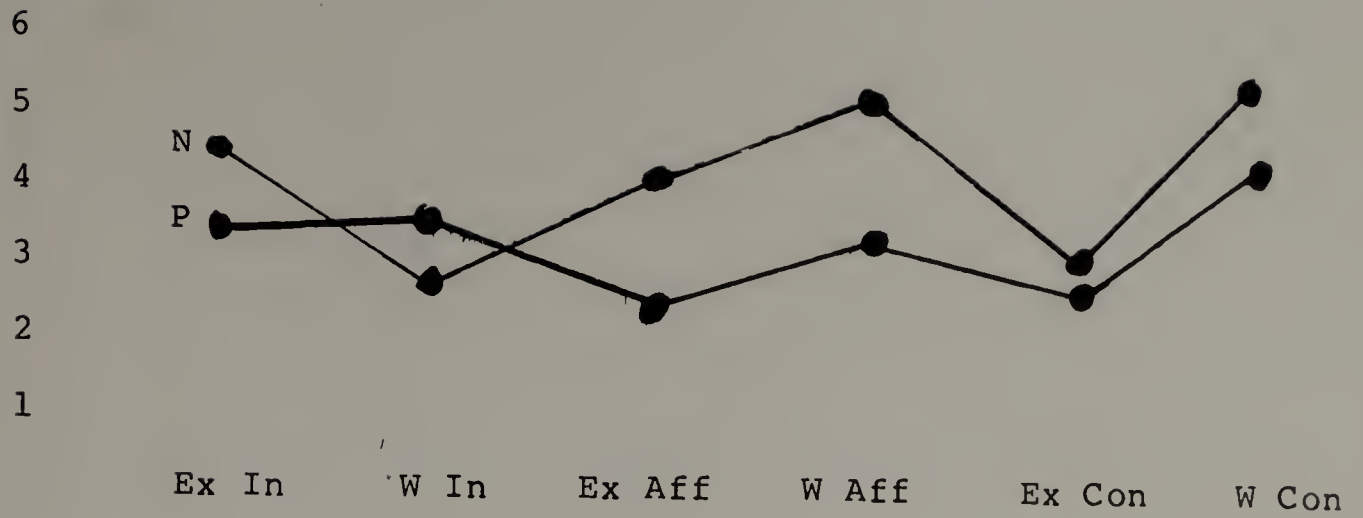


Figure 3: A comparison between mean scores of the parenting (P) and non-parenting (N) groups on the FIRO-B instrument.



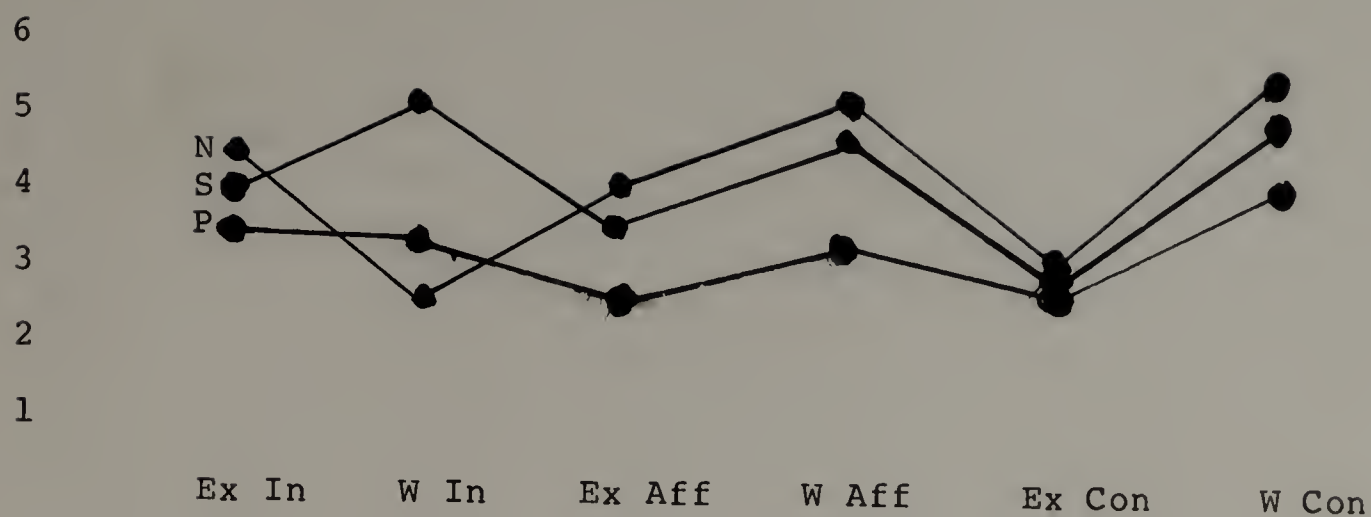


Figure 4: A comparison between mean scores of the parenting (P) and non-parenting (N) groups and of Schutz' college population (S) on the FIRO-B instrument.

position (Ryan, 1977; Schutz, 1968).

According to Schutz, who also drew characteristic profiles based on specific scoring patterns, the non-parenting girls, with higher scores in all three significant areas, indicate more self-confidence in making life decisions and, consequently, exhibit the desire for more control over their own lives. It may be then, as Schutz (1978) suggests, that these girls show more mature development with respect to the three components of his theory of Inclusion (wanting to be a part of groups), Control (desiring power in a relationship) and Affection (the need for emotional closeness). This differs radically from his interpretation of the lower scores more typical of the parenting population whose type he calls "undersocial". Their desire for less Affection and less Wanted Control suggests withdrawal and introversion. An individual who may have failed in earlier relationships may now conclude that passive resistance is less threatening than overt expressions of her needs.

These parenting teens' lower scores in Wanted and Expressed Affection may reflect their life histories. Their family and peer relationships may have been less dependably affectionate and trustworthy. Several studies have highlighted a higher rate of familial dysfunction, inability to form meaningful relationships with their peers, especially

girlfriends, and a tendency to exhibit clinging, dependent behavior toward their boyfriends (Protinsky et al., 1982; Zelnik et al., 1982). None of these patterns of relationships suggests a basis for security and self-confidence. Lower expectations of giving and receiving affection may be a defensive reaction against constant experiences of emotional disappointment.

### The 25 Item Survey

The 25 item survey had been divided into three clusters labeled Internal Pressures, referring to the controls of conscience, external pressures, or the influence of societal laws, norms and mores, and risk-taking, acting without consideration of the consequences. Participants responded to each single item statement by indicating their degree of agreement or disagreement. Table 2 summarizes the means and standard deviations for each group in each cluster. Each of the three cluster scores was compared in a group by age analysis of variance. Only one significant difference was found. The parenting group scored significantly lower on the cluster of questions called Internal Pressures than did the non-parenting group ( $F=6.571$ ;  $P=.013$ ). This seems to indicate that those girls who have become mothers are less influenced by the effects of internalized religious teachings or the standards and values of the adult community and respond more to situational factors.

Table 2: The means and standard deviations for both the parenting and non-parenting groups in the three clusters of the original survey.

	<u>Non-Parenting</u>	<u>Parenting</u>
Internal Pressures	34.094(6.093)	30.143(5.829)
External Pressures	22.906(3.216)	23.357(4.832)
Risk-Taking	21.188(3.084)	20.571(3.108)

Perhaps indicative of this response pattern were the answers given by the parenting girls who agree more strongly with certain survey questions than their peers did; in each case these were statements from the Internal Pressures cluster of the 25 Item Survey. For example, the parenting teens agreed that teenage pregnancy is an accepted part of life, that having sex makes teens more acceptable to other teens, and that it is ok to try new things for the experience.

It had been suggested that parenting teens would score higher in External Pressures and Risk-Taking and lower in Internal Pressures. The only significant area which coincides with the prediction was in the Internal Pressures category, suggesting that pregnant teens may respond less than their peers to the dictates of their conscience. Any further interpretation of the results of the 25 Item Survey seems unwarranted. The individual items varied in clarity and in their ability to discriminate. The clusters of items were formed based on face validity only. No investigation of reliability or validity has been attempted. Consequently any conclusions based on this scale should be arrived at cautiously.

### The Discriminate Analysis

Finally, the 10 factors, COPE - Denial, all six subscores of FIRO-B and three survey clusters, were used in



a discriminate analysis. The resulting predictive equation accurately classified 81.67 percent of the 60 subjects. Five members of the control group and 6 of the parenting group were mis-classified. The discriminate function was found to be significant in group prediction in three areas. The variables with the highest co-efficients in the predictive equation were COPE Denial (.65294), FIRO-B Expressed Affection (.50470) and the cluster survey questions labeled Internal Pressures (.61526). That is, a subject who reported high preference for Denial, low Expressed Affection and low Internal Pressures was likely to be in the parenting group.

Some authors contend that high preferences for denial and for high risk-taking are often seen among people whose life style seems to reflect immature cognitive development. Immediate gratification is noted, with satisfaction being viewed for the here and now. At the same time, the demands of conscience are low or lacking, presumably an indication again of the level of cognitive development. These findings have been substantiated in numerous studies (Moore, 1980; Matana, 1983). Low Expressed Affection and Internal Pressure scores seem to parallel each other at least in cause. As has been noted, adolescents who have become pregnant appear to have already accepted external control over their lives, suggesting that they have abandoned striving to achieve their own aims of being loved and needed and reaching more

mature (cognitive) levels of behavior and conscience.

Looking at immaturity by itself, however, may only offer a simplistic or partial answer. In this study, variance by age was insignificant. In numerous other studies, it would appear that, while immaturity has evolved into maturity, the women's behavior patterns have not changed (Chilman, 1982; Zelnik et al., 1983). It may be that immaturity is a variable that allows or promotes other factors which are the real causes of this type of behavior. While it may appear to be an obvious cause, immaturity, as a predictor, is inconsistent at best.

Overall, other factors tend to be more reliable predictors. Relationships over which the girl has no control and the negative emotional consequences which may result suggest areas worthy of further investigation. As in the findings of this study, girls who become pregnant as teenagers expect less affection, deny responsibility for their actions and accept themselves as victims of their circumstances. Collectively, these factors may be observed and tested and a correlation drawn between these adolescents avoidance of high control and influence by others and their choices of coping mechanisms to meet their own emotional needs.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study had, as its purpose, the identification and comparison of personality characteristics, especially coping patterns, between adolescent parenting and non-parenting girls. Specific areas of interest included stress management and decision-making (including risk-taking), particularly as they influence sexual attitudes and behavior. Test instruments included Coping Operations Preference Enquiry (COPE), Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation-behavior (FIRO-B), and an original attitudes survey. COPE, a descriptive questionnaire where the subject rank orders her preferred coping mechanisms resulting from stress-producing situations, and FIRO-B, a Guttman format personality inventory, are both instruments originated by William Schutz in his research into the structure of interpersonal relationships. COPE is designed to measure one's preference for Denial, Isolation, Projection, Regression or Turning-Against-Self as defense mechanisms. FIRO-B measures the self-reported need for Inclusion, Control and Affection, identified by Schutz as necessary in all relationships, and includes subscores for both wanted and expressed behavior. An original survey, consisting of 25 single statement questions, concerns attitudes and behavior; it attempted to

isolate the effects of internal pressures, external pressures and risk-taking, especially as they determine sexual attitudes and behavior.

The subjects included in this program originally numbered 95 teenage girls, all located through various summer programs in three Southeastern Massachusetts cities. Of the original 95 volunteers, 51 had given birth at least once during the previous 2 years. Among the parenting teens, 21 girls, 42 percent of the original population, were unable to read the directions or to understand them when they were presented verbally; only 4 or 10 x percent of the non-parenting teens failed to complete the materials. Because of this incomplete data, 21 sets of information gathered from the parenting teens were discarded in the analysis of materials while 4 sets were not used from the control group. From this group, 8 girls were eliminated in order to match the 2 groups on the basis of age, educational attainment, ethnic or racial heritage and religion. The final groups, consisting of 28 parenting and 32 non-parenting subjects (N=60), made up the body of the study.

A review of the literature of teenage pregnancy, as well as personal observation, indicated certain trends. Conflicting, fragmented and moralistic conclusions drawn from early research became apparent but, by integrating these findings with the results of contemporary work, a



general profile of teens who become pregnant surfaced and suggests certain demographic similarities as well as an apathetic orientation toward life, specifically as observed through personality characteristics. It appears from these factors that teens who become pregnant are entrapped in a cycle of frustration, anxiety and dependency causing the young subjects to fall prey to undue stress and general maladjustment. One theory suggests that the adolescent's methods of coping, especially in the areas involving decision-making, may already have been established. In early works by Schutz and others, a body of knowledge was generated which indicates that coping patterns tend to develop early in life and tend to be relatively stable throughout adulthood. The focus of this study is identifying these patterns.

In this study, a comparison of means of the COPE battery indicated strong similarities between the non-parenting group and a Schutz' population of adults. For both, Denial was the least preferred method of coping and Turning-Against-Self the most preferred. The parenting teens, however, exhibited a different profile with a significantly higher use of Denial and conversely less preference for Turning-Against-Self. Using norm reference scores instead of raw scores, the mean score on Denial for the parenting subjects fell at the 9th decile. While the 9th



decile is an exceptionally high mean ranking, it is consistent with other findings in the literature. Some have suggested that high use of Denial is a characteristic of immature cognitive development. A comparison of the use of Denial by age level in this study does not confirm this.

In analysis of the FIRO-B results, the parenting teens scored lower than the non-parenting adolescents in mean scores in all but one area resulting in a somewhat flat and depressed profile. In a two way analysis of variance (two groups by three ages), the parenting group scored significantly lower in Expressed Affection ( $F=9.68$ ;  $P=.003$ ), Wanted Affection ( $F=4.68$ ;  $P=.035$ ) and Wanted Control ( $F=4.92$ ;  $P=.031$ ). Comparing these results to the scores of another sample of youth, the parenting girls ranked lower in all areas while the non-parenting girls in this study obtained similar, though not identical, results to Schutz' college freshmen. This may indicate that the teens who are parenting have lowered their expectations in life, especially those requiring positive self-esteem; references to low self-worth and other poor ego skills are found consistently in the literature (Lourie, 1965; Honzik, 1967; Udry, 1984).

The original survey items were clustered for analysis into three areas comprising internal pressures, external pressures and risk-taking. In a group by age analysis of

variance, the parenting adolescents scored significantly lower in the category of internal pressures. This group seems less affected by, or perhaps more accurately shows less awareness of, such influences as religious mores and conscience.

In a 10 factor discriminate analysis, the predictive equation provided an 81.67 percent accuracy rate with 5 members of the non-parenting and 6 of the parenting populations being misclassified based on the given data. Three factors accounted for most of the variance: high Denial (.65294), low Expressed Affection (.50470) and low internal pressures (.61526). Girls who tended to exhibit these personality traits were most likely to have become pregnant.

Reflecting the findings of previous research, this study suggests certain characteristics that may be observed more often in parenting teens than in their non-parenting peers. These include lower educational skills, more use of denial as a defense mechanism, less expressed desire for affection in and control over their lives, and less response to the traditional controls of conscience.

That pregnant girls tend to fare poorly in school seems to have been recognized early by researchers including the United States government. There is a greater probability that these teens will be less successful adapting to and

achieving in school, resulting in poor grades and poor performances on standardized tests; they are more likely to repeat grades than their peers. They have been cited as having "alarmingly high rates" of learning disorders (Compton et al., 1985). This negative school history leaves them more likely than other girls their age to drop out (Levy et al., 1983), as suggested by government studies as early as 1950. This is one of the "social costs" of teenage pregnancy addressed from the point of illiteracy as recently as 1980 under President Jimmy Carter's \$14 billion Children's Survival Bill.

It has been suggested that these teens find little pleasure in such types of achievement, often shying away from the competition which underlies much of our modern school philosophy. That these girls do not master certain basic skills, survival skills for their future, must be confronted; programs aimed at identifying these youngsters, before the pregnancy occurs if possible, and raising their literacy level as well as other basic skills are imperative. If intervention before pregnancy is not possible, these same concerns must be incorporated into parenting programs which, for the most part, assume that the youngster has already developed reading, writing and cognitive reasoning techniques. A future benefit from this type of program may become obvious if development of the

skills allows parallel success in occupational endeavors where parenting teens have traditionally fallen below their peers.

Another obvious area of concern is the parenting teens high use of denial as a coping mechanism, again a finding consistent with a large body of research but notable here because of the exceptionally high level of response. Impulsivity and the inability to foresee consequences have been cited previously (Babakian et al., 1971; Landy et al., 1983) as has the inability to postpone gratification (Protinsky et al., 1982; Landy et al., 1983). Regarding sexual attitudes, researchers have suggested explanations ranging from a lack of reproductive knowledge including fear of contraceptives to a magical belief in one's own invincibility. This combination of less clear thinking and poor self-control (or a lack of motivation to use self-control) may establish a category of adolescents who Phipps-Yonas refers to as "those who conceive by default" (1980). Typical of this stage of cognitive immaturity and characterized by the inability for abstract reasoning, this girl may compound her own situation by the conflicts within herself regarding negative adult sanctions of illegitimacy and the influences of a peer tolerant sub-culture. This may also be seen as her failure to redefine her self-concept as a woman by refusing to admit to her sexual involvement;



bridging this gap between the cause and the effect of behavior then becomes a problem. One part of the solution may be through specific training in decision making techniques, applicable not only to her sexual activities but as a necessary life skill.

That the parenting girls involved in this study indicated less wanted and less expressed affection hints at already established attitudes of depression and hopelessness. Unresolved parent-child relationships as well as poor interpersonal relationships with their peers have been documented (Elster et al., 1980; Landy et al., 1983), along with the effects of conflict and self-doubt in boy-girl relationships, including fear of a long term commitment such as marriage. Sex then may appear to offer her physical gratification without the accompaniment of emotional ties, a synthetic substitute for love (Phipps-Yonas, 1980).

Again depression and helplessness, brought about by her passive-dependent personality and re-enforced by a history of failure, may explain the pregnant teens lowered desire for control over her own life. That she usually fails to use contraceptives or at least to use them consistently has been indicated by study after study. This may tie in with the indications that she exhibits less concern for the promptings of conscious which may result in a paradox created by society's attempts to control teen pregnancy:



lessening the penalties of adolescent childbearing may act as a catalyst encouraging the problem it was intended to correct.

The areas of denial, control and promptings of conscience clearly indicate a need for more intensive study of the mechanisms by which young people cope -- successfully or unsuccessfully -- with the stress in their lives. Their patterns of decision-making may determine their behavior. Certainly a number of variables--family, religion and peer pressure, among others--must be taken into consideration but parameters of personality development are worthy of study. As each area offers clues to the pregnant girl's personality specifics, programs may be directed toward pregnancy prevention.

As often noted, despite the consequences of pregnancy, denial as a coping mechanism tends to persist among these adolescents. Denial may well be found to correlate with these teens life styles in general, perhaps setting up a situation by which the cumulative result is a predisposition toward risky actions including unprotected sex. Further study may indicate which of these patterns persist from youth into adulthood and which may respond to intervention.

The implications for practice suggest a more general direction for programs. As an example, broader life skills

courses, rather than those limited to teen parenting training, may effect attitudes and behavior; changes in sexual conduct could be one of its results. (A definite advantage to this approach may surface as school boards and other controlling bodies more readily give approval to programs with "umbrella titles" than to those which directly confront the controversial issues of sex education.) Such courses could focus on responsibility, especially to give young people help in handling stress and decision-making in all aspects of their lives. As well, this approach may allow for the development of support systems providing the medium for life-long services especially in using community resources for dealing with crises.

The three areas of highest statistical significance, Denial, Expressed Affection and internal pressures, suggest some implications for practice. While theory abounds, the need for practical application is foremost. Perhaps basic to all three areas is the pregnant or parenting teens sense of self. As noted in the vast majority of the literature, these girls often lack positive self-esteem and self-confidence; they see life as overwhelming and the power over their lives as external. Communications skills often need to be addressed as a most basic component of successful relationships. Training involving both verbal and non-verbal communications techniques and their importance in

long-term and satisfying relationships appears to be worthwhile. Denial may become more difficult if the adolescent creates the reality of consequences by first putting it into words; wanted affection may actually be desired but unattainable due to a lack of communication skills involving not only a boyfriend but other friends and family members. Improvement in communications may also lessen social inadequacies by allowing the teen to be more comfortable in casual relationships and by providing the opportunity for entering into new, and perhaps highly satisfying friendships. Decision-making skills, part of an on-going cognitive developmental process, may improve the girls ability to generate and evaluate options and their consequences. Some of these logic and reasoning skills lend themselves readily to certain courses already in place within most secondary school systems.

The cycle of negative consequences is obvious:

1,600,000 teenage girls will become pregnant during a given year with 1/5 to 1/3 repeat pregnancies within 2 years time. Ninety percent of these adolescents will choose to raise their youngsters, thus setting in motion a possible cycle of poverty, depression and failure. But the question of how a teenage mother changes during or as a result of her pregnancy remains. Programs to identify high-risk teens are necessary. Personality factors may well be indicated in

long-term handling of stress and decision-making. With this help, the girl may better accept her role as a woman incorporate the responsibility of her own sexuality including the responsibility for her actions.

Appendix A  
COPE Sample Test



# COPE

## A FIRO AWARENESS SCALE

WILL SCHUTZ, Ph.D.

### FEMALE FORM

**DIRECTIONS:** The following questionnaire is designed to see how you would guess certain kinds of people might feel in various situations. Several situations are described here by a person who has observed an incident. You are to guess which of the five alternatives best describes the way the person in the story feels. In the space beside each choice, rank your guesses: Place a 1 beside that alternative you feel is most likely, a 2 beside the one next most likely, down to 5 for the alternative least likely to apply in the situation.

EXAMPLE:

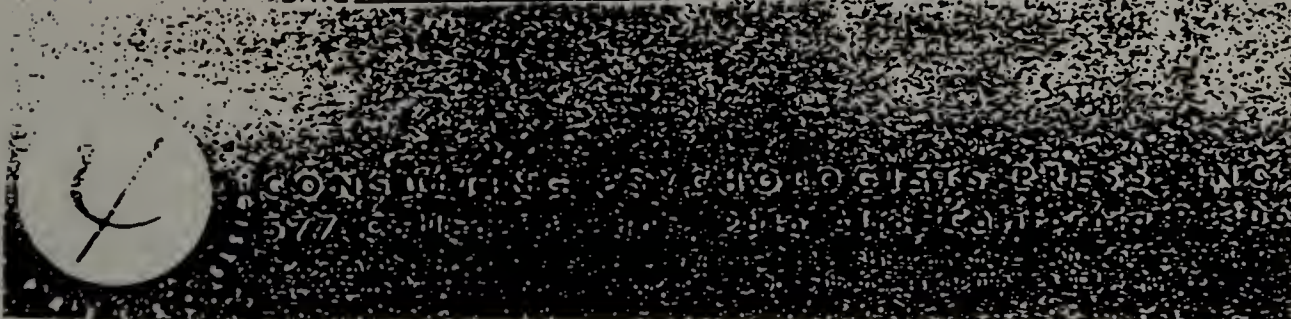
Harassed Helen

- 3 a.  
1 b. (most likely)  
2 c.  
5 d. (least likely)  
4 e.

NAME \_\_\_\_\_

GROUP \_\_\_\_\_

DATE \_\_\_\_\_ AGE \_\_\_\_\_ OTHER \_\_\_\_\_



## ACTIVE ALICE

"Yesterday something happened to Alice which seemed to make her feel disturbed. Alice usually does everything together with people, and when others do things, she tends to join them.

"Yesterday a group of friends came over and asked her to go out with them. Alice seemed not to want to go, but went anyway. She appeared to realize that she might enjoy herself more if she didn't always join people but spent more time by herself.

"She still appears to be concerned about this. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- ☐ a. She's not worried. She feels this isn't a very important problem.
- ☐ b. She may do too many things with others, but she doesn't feel this has much to do with how much she enjoys people.
- ☐ c. Although she may do too many things with others, she feels that this is because other people expect her to.
- ☐ d. She feels that she may do too many things with others, but with help from someone more experienced, she could change.
- ☐ e. She realizes that the fault for doing too many things with others lies completely with herself and with no one else.

## COOL CLARA

"Yesterday Clara realized something about herself which appeared to disturb her. When she is with people, she usually acts rather cool and reserved. She is the kind of person who doesn't get very close to people or confide to them her feelings and worries.

"During a long conversation yesterday, Clara seemed to want to confide in a friend the things she worries about and how she feels—but she didn't. It appears that she became aware for the first time of the fact that she might enjoy her relations with people more if she were not so cool and reserved, if she were warmer and more personally involved with her friends.

"Today Clara still appears concerned about her realization of yesterday. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- ☐ a. She realizes that the fault for being cool toward others is completely her own and no one else's.
- ☐ b. She feels that this isn't a very important problem. She isn't worried.
- ☐ c. She feels that she may be cool toward others, but with help from someone more experienced, she could change.
- ☐ d. Although she may be cool toward others, she feels that this is because other people behave that way toward her.
- ☐ e. She may be cool toward others, but she doesn't feel this has much to do with how much she enjoys people.

## DOMINANT DONNA

"During a club meeting yesterday, Donna appeared to realize something about herself which seemed to disturb her. When she is with people, she is usually quite domineering. She takes charge of things and makes most of the decisions.

"After volunteering for the role of chairman, it occurred to her that she would have been happier just being a committee member. She seemed to realize for the first time that she would enjoy people more if she were not so domineering; not always making decisions for people.

"Today Donna still appears concerned about her new realization of yesterday. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- ☐ a. She realizes that the fault for being too domineering lies completely with herself and with no one else.
- ☐ b. She isn't worried. She feels this isn't a very important problem.
- ☐ c. She may be too domineering, but she doesn't feel this has much to do with how much she enjoys people.
- ☐ d. Although she may be too domineering, she feels that this is because other people expect this of her.
- ☐ e. She feels that she may be too domineering, but with help from someone more experienced, she could change.

## PERSONAL PAULA

"Paula is a very outgoing type of person. She tends to become very close and personally involved with others. She confides to them her innermost feelings and worries.

"Yesterday, she spoke to a friend and told her a great deal about herself. After thinking over her talk, she seemed to feel that she would have felt more comfortable if she had not confided so much. Perhaps she would enjoy her relations with people more if she didn't become so close and personal; if she were more cool and reserved.

"This morning Paula still appears concerned. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. She may be too personal toward others, but she doesn't feel that this has much to do with how much she enjoys people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. She realizes that the fault for being too personal with others lies with herself and with no one else
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. She feels that this isn't a very important problem. She isn't worried.
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. She feels that she may be too personal with others but that with help from someone more experienced, she could change.
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. Although she may be too personal toward others, she feels that this is mainly because other people behave that way toward her.

## SUBMISSIVE SUSAN

"In a group meeting yesterday, Susan, who rarely takes charge of things even when it might be appropriate, appeared to be very disturbed. When a request was made for volunteers for the chairmanship, Susan suddenly seemed to realize that she might like the job. She appeared to feel that she might enjoy her relations with people more if she were not so reluctant to be more assertive.

"Today she appears to be still concerned. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. Although she may take too little responsibility, she feels that this is mainly because other people expect this of her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. She feels that she may take less responsibility than she should, but with help from someone more experienced, she could change.
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. She may take less responsibility than she should, but she doesn't feel this has much to do with how much she enjoys people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. She feels this isn't a very important problem. She isn't worried
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. She realizes that the fault for taking too little responsibility lies completely with herself and with no one else

## WITHDRAWN WILMA

"Last night Wilma was thinking over the fact that she usually does things by herself and hardly ever includes other people in her activities

"Some time later a group of students from one of her classes came by and asked her to go out with them. Almost automatically, she refused. After they left, she seemed to realize that she would enjoy her relations with others more if she didn't always do things by herself, if she spent more time with people

"This morning she still seems concerned. How would you guess she really feels now?"

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. She feels that she may do too many things by herself, but that with help from someone more experienced she could change.
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. Although she may do too many things by herself, she feels that this is mainly because other people are too busy to include her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. She realizes that the fault for doing too many things by herself lies completely with her and no one else
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. She may do too many things by herself, but she doesn't feel that this has much to do with how much she enjoys people
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. She feels this isn't a very important problem. She isn't worried

Please check your answers and make sure you have ranked all alternatives 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 for each item. Thank you

Paula                  Alice

\_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_

Susan                  Clara

\_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_

Wilma                  Donna

\_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_

Rankings from pages 2 and 3 should be copied above. They may then be transferred to the appropriate boxes at right.

	D	I	P	R	T
Alice	a	b	c	d	e
Clara	b	c	d	e	a
Donna	b	c	d	e	a
Paula	c	a	c	d	b
Susan	d	c	a	b	e
Wilma	c	d	b	a	e
TOTAL					
DECILES					
RANK					

Add numbers in each column to obtain total; then enter deciles from table below. In the bottom row, columns may be ranked from highest to lowest decile.

#### DECILE CONVERSION

Decile Score	Denial	Isolation	Projection	Regression	Turning-against-Self	Decile Score
0	30	29	30	29	30	0
1	29	22-28	22-29	22-28	20-29	1
2	29	21	21	20-21	17-19	2
3	28	20	20	18-19	15-16	3
4	26-27	19	19	17	13-14	4
5	25	18	18	15-16	12	5
6	23-24	17	17	14	10-11	6
7	21-22	15-16	15-16	13	8-9	7
8	19-20	14	14	12	7	8
9	16-18	12-13	12-13	10-11	6	9

Appendix B  
FIRO-B Sample Test



NAME \_\_\_\_\_

GROUP \_\_\_\_\_ DATE \_\_\_\_\_ AGE \_\_\_\_\_

	I	C	A	SUM (I+C+A)
e				
w				
SUM (e + w)				TOTAL SUM
DIFF (+ OR -) (e - w)				TOTAL DIFF

# FIRO-B

Self-Scorable Version  
WILL SCHUTZ, PH.D.

**DIRECTIONS:** This questionnaire explores the typical ways you interact with people. There are no right or wrong answers.

Sometimes people are tempted to answer questions like these in terms of what they think a person *should* do. This is *not* what is wanted here. We would like to know how you actually behave.

Some items may seem similar to others. However, each item is different so please answer each one without regard to the others. There is no time limit, but do not debate long over any item.

Now, unless you have been instructed otherwise, turn the booklet over and begin answering the questions.



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"X" in the appropriate box. Please be as honest as you can.

1. never 2. rarely 3. occasionally 4. sometimes 5. often 6. usually

1. I try to be with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I let other people decide what to do.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I join social groups.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I try to have close relationships with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
5. I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
6. I let other people strongly influence my actions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
7. I try to be included in informal social activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
8. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
9. I try to avoid being alone.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
10. I try to participate in group activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. nobody 2. one or two 3. a few 4. some 5. many 6. most people

17. I try to be friendly to people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
18. I let other people decide what to do.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
19. My personal relations with people are cool and distant.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
20. I let other people take charge of things.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
21. I try to have close relationships with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
22. I let other people strongly influence my actions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
23. I try to get close and personal with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
24. I let other people control my actions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
25. I act cool and distant with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
26. I am easily led by people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
27. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6

1. nobody

2. one or two 3. a few people

4. some people

5. 6. most people

28. I like people to invite me to things.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
29. I like people to act close and personal with me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
30. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
31. I like people to invite me to join in their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
32. I like people to act close toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
33. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
34. I like people to include me in their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
35. I like people to act friendly toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
36. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
37. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
38. I like people to act friendly toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
39. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
40. I like people to act distant toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. never 2. rarely 3. occasionally 4. sometimes 5. often 6. usually

41. I try to be the dominant person when I am with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
42. I like people to invite me to things.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
43. I like people to act close toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
44. I try to have other people do things I want done.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
45. I like people to invite me to join their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
46. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
47. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
48. I like people to include me in their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
49. I like people to act close and personal with me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
50. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
51. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
52. I like people to act distant toward me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
53. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.  
1 2 3 4 5 6
54. I take charge of things when I'm with people.  
1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix C

Original Survey and Demographic Questionnaire

Please circle the choice which most nearly expresses your opinion:  
 Agree Strongly, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Disagree Strongly.

- |   |             |
|---|-------------|
| 1. The girl has the responsibility for getting and using contraceptives.                          | AS A U D DS |
| 2. One's destiny cannot be changed by her actions.  | AS A U D DS |
| 3. Teen pregnancy is an accepted part of life.  | AS A U D DS |
| 4. Any consequences are worth the risk if an action is enjoyable.                                 | AS A U D DS |
| 5. Pregnancy is not a good way to keep a boyfriend.   | AS A U D DS |
| 6. Some actions can have life-long results.   | AS A U D DS |
| 7. Teens should not worry about having sex as long as no one else knows.                          | AS A U D DS |
| 8. Getting pregnant is a good way to get to move out of the house.                                | AS A U D DS |
| 9. Having sex is worth the risk because it's doing what the girl wants, not what her parents say. | AS A U D DS |
| 10. Even if a girl chooses not to have sex herself, it's ok for others.                           | AS A U D DS |
| 11. Taking a chance is ok because it breaks the monotony of every day life.                       | AS A U D DS |
| 12. Being pregnant in school would be humiliating.  | AS A U D DS |
| 13. Taking sexual risks makes a teen more accepted by her friends.                                | AS A U D DS |
| 14. Buying contraceptives in a store is embarrassing.   | AS A U D DS |
| 15. Boy/girl relationships become emotionally closer as a result of taking risks together.        | AS A U D DS |
| 16. Using contraceptives is immoral.  | AS A U D DS |
| 17. It isn't what a girl does that's wrong, it's getting caught.                                  | AS A U D DS |
| 18. Contraceptives are too messy, involved or dangerous.  | AS A U D DS |

19. Even though it may be dangerous to do so, some people try new things just for the experience. AS A U D DS
20. Having sex without her parents' knowledge allows a girl to "get away" with something. AS A U D DS
21. Some girls experiment with sex so they'll be experienced when the right guy comes along. AS A U D DS
22. Using a contraceptive lessens the enjoyment of sex. AS A U D DS
23. Getting pregnant changes a girl's life. AS A U D DS
24. The guy is responsible if a girl gets pregnant. AS A U D DS
25. Having sex doesn't prove a girl's maturity. AS A U D DS

Please circle the choice which most nearly describes you:

- |  |                                   |                       |                          |                    |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Your age now                                | 12/13                             | 14/15                 | 16/17                    | more               |
| 2. Your age at birth of child                  | 12/13                             | 14/15                 | 16/17                    | 18+                |
| 3. Your last year of school                    | Gr.6                              | Gr.9                  | Gr.12                    | more               |
| 4. Number of people in your home               | 1/2                               | 3/4                   | 5/6                      | more               |
| 5. These people include                        | boyfr./<br>husband                | father                | mother                   | brother/<br>sister |
| 6. Your position in family                     | only                              | youngest              | oldest                   | middle             |
| 7. Estimate annual wages of all family members | less                              | \$10,000-<br>\$15,000 | \$15,000-<br>\$20,000    | more               |
| 8. Occupation of major wage earner             | lab-<br>orer                      | office/<br>skilled    | semipro/<br>professional | other              |
| 9. Family religion                             | Jew                               | Cathol.               | Protest.                 | other              |
| 10. Race of family members                     | Orien./Hispan./<br>Am.In. Negroid | Hispan./<br>Caucasion |                          | other              |



## Appendix D

### Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations for Both Groups in COPE, FIRO-B and the Original Survey

	<u>Non-Parenting</u>	<u>Parenting</u>	<u>Combined</u>
Denial	21.093(5.305)	17.107(3.095)	19.233(4.816)
Isolation	17.259(3.232)	19.107(3.654)	18.116(3.532)
Projection	17.156(3.836)	17.464(3.532)	17.300(3.669)
Regression	18.406(4.492)	17.392(3.842)	17.933(4.197)
Turn-Self	14.875(4.030)	17.321(2.881)	16.016(3.721)
<u>FIRO-B</u>			
Ex Inclusion	4.656(2.336)	3.535(2.700)	4.133(2.554)
W Inclusion	2.781(2.859)	3.500(3.061)	3.116(2.952)
Ex Affection	4.250(2.712)	2.642(1.830)	3.500(2.459)
W Affection	5.218(3.338)	3.214(3.292)	4.283(3.440)
Ex Control	2.968(2.822)	2.607(2.330)	2.800(2.589)
W Control	5.468(2.382)	4.285(1.978)	4.916(2.264)
<u>Original Survey</u>			
C1	3.000(1.391)	3.107(1.448)	3.050(1.400)
C2	3.281(1.591)	3.071(1.463)	3.183(1.523)
C3	3.687(1.281)	3.107(1.594)	3.416(1.453)
C4	3.375(1.237)	3.107(1.286)	3.250(1.257)
C5	3.718(1.373)	3.928(1.215)	3.816(1.295)
C6	4.156(1.019)	3.035(1.104)	3.633(1.192)
C7	3.156(1.322)	3.071(1.412)	3.116(1.354)
C8	2.468(1.34)	2.964(1.373)	2.700(1.369)
C9	3.031(1.31)	3.428(1.259)	3.216(1.303)
C10	3.281(1.440)	3.071(1.438)	3.183(1.432)
C11	2.281(1.263)	2.964(1.527)	2.866(1.383)
C12	3.281(1.250)	2.357(1.223)	2.850(1.312)
C13	3.406(1.388)	3.178(1.362)	3.300(1.369)
C14	2.843(1.322)	3.892(.9940)	3.333(1.284)
C15	3.563(1.366)	3.250(1.430)	3.250(1.394)
C16	3.250(1.295)	2.607(1.397)	2.950(1.371)
C17	3.375(1.264)	3.143(1.239)	3.267(1.247)

C18	3.438(1.162)	2.357(.9510)	2.933(1.191)
C19	3.125(1.314)	3.036(1.347)	3.083(1.319)
C20	3.156(1.370)	2.214(1.315)	2.717(1.415)
C21	2.844(1.221)	2.893(1.343)	2.867(1.268)
C22	3.344(1.208)	4,071(1.120)	3.683(1.214)
C23	3.250(1.524)	2.857(1.353)	3.067(1.448)
C24	3.375(1.540)	3.357(1.521)	3.367(1.518)
C25	3.438(1.544)	3.143(1.239)	3.300(1.406)

## Appendix E

### Means and Standard Deviations for the Non-parenting and Parenting Groups for the 10 Factors Used in the Discriminate Analysis

	<u>Non-Parenting</u>	<u>Parenting</u>	<u>Combined</u>
Cope/Denial	21.093(5.305)	17.107(3.095)	19.233(4.816)
Firo-B(1)	4.656(2.336)	3.535(2.700)	4.133(2.554)
Firo-B(2)	2.781(2.855)	3.500(3.061)	3.116(2.952)
Firo-B(3)	4.250(2.711)	2.642(1.830)	3.500(2.459)
Firo-B(4)	5.218(3.338)	2.607(2.330)	4.283(3.440)
Firo-B(5)	2.968(2.822)	2.607(2.330)	2.800(2.589)
Firo-B(6)	5.468(2.382)	2.285(1.978)	4.916(2.264)
Survey			
InPress	34.093(6.092)	30.142(5.829)	32.250(6.245)
ExPress	22.906(3.216)	20.571(3.108)	20.900(3.084)
Risk	21.187(3.084)	20.571(3.108)	20.900(3.084)

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